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Colonial Administration in the Far East

**THE
PROVINCE OF BURMA**

IN TWO VOLUMES

VOLUME I

Colonial Administration in the Far East

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

A REPORT PREPARED ON BEHALF
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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I



BOSTON AND NEW YORK
HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN AND COMPANY

The Riverside Press, Cambridge

1907

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GENERAL PREFACE

In 1901 I was appointed Colonial Commissioner of the University of Chicago for the purpose of visiting the Far East and preparing a report on the administration of the principal European dependencies in that part of the world, and of the Philippine Islands. In pursuance of the mission thus intrusted to me I have compiled a Report on Colonial Administration in the Far East, in which I have endeavoured to present in some detail an account of the salient features of the various systems of government in force in those parts of South-eastern Asia which are dependencies or protectorates of one or another of the Great Powers.

Before setting out on my journey, I spent a year in preliminary work. Six months were devoted to an examination of the material available in the libraries of the Foreign Office, the India Office, and the Colonial Office in London in regard to Far Eastern dependencies, and to study at the Royal Geographical Society and at the Royal Colonial Institute; and six months were devoted to the classification and arrangement of such parts of my own library as related to the subject of my inquiry.

During my stay in London I presented myself to the Right Honourable the Marquess of Lansdowne, His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, and, after laying before him the objects of my mission, I sought, as a British subject, the assistance of His Majesty's Government in the matter of credentials. Any success which has attended my labours is due, in a large measure, to the interest shown in my undertaking by His Majesty's Government, and to the valuable assistance which was afforded me by the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, by the Secretary of State for India, by the Secretary of State for the Colonies, and by the officials of the Foreign, India, and Colonial Offices.

Through the kind aid of the Right Honourable the Marquess of Lansdowne, I secured the cordial co-operation of the French and Dutch Governments; and throughout the whole of my journey in the Far East the officials of the various dependencies

which I visited responded in the most obliging manner to the recommendations of their home governments on my behalf, and did their utmost to lay before me whatever material was available in regard to their local administrations, and to provide me with every facility for personal and independent investigation.

The United States Government was not less willing to lend its aid to my purpose, and in regard to the Philippine Islands I was given, both in Washington and Manila, every possible assistance by the officials with whom I came in contact. Through the generosity of the United States Government I was supplied with a complete file of all printed official documents issued in Washington and in Manila on the subject of Philippine affairs from the date of the outbreak of the Spanish War.

In March, 1902, my arrangements were completed, and I left Boston for the Far East by way of the Canadian Pacific Railway to Vancouver, and thence to Hong Kong on *The Empress of India*, one of the mail steamers of the C. P. R. fleet.

I returned to Boston in July, 1904, over the same route. During the period of two years and four months which elapsed between my departure and my return I visited each dependency which is included in this Report; that is to say, in the order in which I visited them, Hong Kong, British North Borneo, Sarawak, Burma, the Straits Settlements, the Federated Malay States, Java, French Indo-China, and the Philippines. In order to gain a somewhat broader view of the general question of Far Eastern dependencies than could be obtained if I confined my observations to the dependencies themselves, I spent some time in India, in China, and in Japan, the countries which represent the ultimate forces by whose action and interaction the future of the Far East must be moulded.

The most important source of information at my disposal was the body of printed documents issued by each local government,—laws and regulations, annual departmental reports, annual statistical returns, official gazettes, census reports, administrative manuals, and monographs by government officials on a great variety of topics. Of publications of this nature I was supplied by the various local governments with more than five thousand volumes, and this Report is based chiefly upon an examination of this material. In so far as this Report represents a condensation of the locally published official documents, it should

Time spent in the
Far East and the
Countries visited.

General Sources
of Information.

prove of considerable use to students, for, although many of these documents reach the British Museum and a few other libraries, no European or American library contains complete files from each dependency; and it may be asserted confidently that in no library in the world can there be found a collection of all the documents which have been consulted in the preparation of this work.

In addition to the material referred to above I have made use of about a thousand volumes which are readily accessible in any large library of reference. These works fall into two classes,—official documents issued by the home Governments on matters connected with their dependencies, such as Treaties, with the correspondence relating thereto, reports of commissions of inquiry, and general statistical returns; and unofficial publications in the nature of history, biography, travel, and reminiscence.

The present Report differs, in its method of treating the problem of colonial administration, from any of the volumes which have been consulted in its preparation.

Special Character of
the Present Work.

In hardly any of the works of which mention has been made above has it been the object of the authors to do more than present some special phase of colonial administration, as a subject isolated either in regard to its nature or as to the area of observation. In other words, the method of comparative study has not as a rule been followed, and where it has been used it has been applied to a very limited number of subjects. I may illustrate this point by reference to three works which have been of the greatest use to me in the preparation of this Report. I have constantly used Sir John Strachey's admirable book *India: Its Administration and Progress*. This work is invaluable to any one who desires to gain a clear general knowledge of Indian administration. But it relates to India alone; and no attempt is made to institute comparisons between the Indian methods of administration and those followed by other Asiatic Governments.

Professor Jenks's *Report on Certain Economic Questions in the English and Dutch Colonies in the Orient* is a work of the highest excellence and utility, but it is confined to a consideration of the currency question, the labour problem, taxation, and police; and its brevity (165 pages) has precluded the possibility of any detailed presentation of the facts or of any close analysis and criticism of methods, admirably as this task has been performed as far as the limits of the Report permitted.

Dr. John Nisbet's *Burma under British Rule—and Before*, from which I have made copious extracts in those volumes of

my Report which relate to Burma, is modelled on much the same lines as Sir John Strachey's work on India. It is a rich mine of information on the history and government of Burma; but it is essentially a book about Burma, and not about comparative colonisation.

The chief aim of the present Report is to cover the ground which has been so lightly touched by other students; that is to say, to give an account of the government of several Asiatic dependencies in such a manner that a comparison may be made of methods and results in each important department of administration, under the different forms of government.

To the accomplishment of this aim all other considerations have been subordinated. No attempt has been made to make the Report attractive to the general reader; no effort has been expended in giving the work an appearance of originality which, whilst it might perhaps add something to the literary reputation of the reporter, would detract from the utility of the work.

Where other students have presented any point in a form adequate for the purpose of the Report, that presentation has been accepted, after proper scrutiny, and has been incorporated in the present work with full acknowledgment of the source. As the whole Report deals almost exclusively with affairs of government, the account of each Government and its work has been drawn chiefly from official documents; and, as these documents are themselves part of the productive activity of the Government, are in themselves one of the subjects of the inquiry, they are reproduced at great length when they serve to convey the information which it is sought to embody in the Report. As instances of this, I may mention the long extracts, contained in the Burma volumes of the Report, from Resolutions of the Government of India on the subjects of Land Revenue and Educational Policy. Where an authoritative statement of the policy and methods of the Government has been issued by the Government itself, it affords the most satisfactory means of presenting the facts.

There remains to be considered the question of comparison, comment, and criticism; and this may be disposed of by giving

General Structure of the Report. a brief account of the general structure of the Report. The method adopted is the

one which, it is believed, will best serve the object of making a clear exposition of the different systems which have been devised by the United Kingdom, the United States, Holland, and France for the solution of administrative

problems of closely identical character. The systems which fall within the range of the inquiry are the Crown Colony system in the Straits Settlements and Hong Kong, the Residential system in the Federated Malay States, the Indian Provincial system in Burma, the Chartered Company system in British North Borneo, the Autocratic system in Sarawak, the French system in Indo-China, the Dutch system in Java, and the American system in the Philippine Islands.

It is expected that the Report will fill twelve volumes.* Ten of these will be devoted to an account of the dependencies and their administration, and two to a critical analysis and comparison of the material presented in regard to each dependency. In what may be termed the local volumes no attempt will be made to furnish detailed comment on administrative methods and results: the object will be to give an accurate and fairly comprehensive presentation of the facts. In the final volumes, however, the aim will be to advance such criticism of methods and results as may be justified by a comparison and analysis of the work in each separate area.

The application of this principle as affecting the general structure of the Report may be illustrated by the following example. The volume on Burma will give an account of the police administration of the Province and a record of the results obtained and expenditures incurred. A similar chapter will appear in each volume dealing with a separate dependency. Instead, then, of making a minute analysis and comparison of methods of police administration in Burma at various periods, for the purpose of a criticism of local police administration, a general criticism of police administration in South-eastern Asia will be reserved for the final volume of the Report, based on a comparison and analysis of the methods and results of police work in the nine dependencies dealt with in the Report.

In laying down the general plan for the structure of the individual volumes of the Report, it has been assumed that for the purposes of a satisfactory survey of the affairs of each dependency it is necessary to know:—(1) how the dependency became a dependency; (2) the character of the tie uniting the dependency to the Sovereign State; (3) the form of government in force in the dependency; (4) the general character of the territory and of the people forming the population; (5) the general administrative mechanism; (6) the departmental mech-

* Twelve volumes is the extreme limit set to the Report. It is impossible as yet to foresee the exact bulk which the material will assume.

anism; (7) the method of selecting government officials; (8) the system of legislation; (9) the methods of finance; (10) the system of land tenure; (11) the institutions of local self-government; (12) the general conditions of internal and external trade; and (13) the results achieved in the various departments by the administrative activity of the government.

In order to keep the Report within reasonable limits, it has been necessary to adopt a definite principle of exclusion; and it has seemed advisable to omit from these volumes any extended reference to matters of antiquarian or archæological interest, to natural history, to languages, and to the work of a number of the minor departments of the administration.

The subjects which will be dealt with in the Report are the following:—

General description of the dependency; its geography, physiography, and climate.	Medical administration.
History of the acquisition by the Sovereign Power.	Forest administration.
The form of government.	Public instruction.
The people of the dependency.	Municipal administration.
The general administrative system.	Public works.
Judicial administration.	The civil service.
Police administration.	Trade and shipping.
Financial administration.	The labour supply.
	Bibliography.
	Statistics.

It has been found impossible to adopt an absolutely uniform treatment for each dependency covered by this Report. The difficulties in the way of such uniformity will be readily appreciated by all who have had occasion to study the affairs of South-eastern Asia.

Difficulty of Securing
Uniformity of Treatment
throughout the Report.

The dependencies are in entirely different stages of development. In Burma, for instance, the administration is of a highly organised type; the records are as complete as those of any government in the world; every incident of administration is embodied in some Report. In Sarawak, on the contrary, the administration is of feudal simplicity, and little is recorded except the general results of administration. Differences as great as these exist between one and another of the dependencies dealt with in this Report; and, although all that is possible has been done to preserve a single mode of treatment, the varying character of the material has imposed certain limitations which no amount of ingenuity and perseverance could remove.

The preparation of this Report has already occupied five years; and it is probable that five years more will be required for its completion. The material to be examined is contained in some six thousand volumes, and covers more than a million printed pages, chiefly of quarto and folio size. As I have

been unable to avail myself of any literary assistance, the responsibility for the Report rests entirely upon my own shoulders. It is of course impossible that in covering so wide a field I should have completely avoided all error; but every means within my power has been taken to give the Report a high standard of accuracy, and I have a reasonable hope that, where errors have been made, they are unimportant in themselves and refer to minor matters which cannot affect the general value of the material presented.

I shall take occasion, in the preface to each volume of this Report, to express my indebtedness to the officials of the local

Acknowledgments of Assistance. governments for the courteous manner in which they aided me in my investigations.

In this, the General Preface to the whole Report, I wish to place on record my deep sense of obligation to the Right Honourable the Marquess of Lansdowne, formerly His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs; to the Right Honourable Lord George Hamilton, formerly His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for India; to the Right Honourable Joseph Chamberlain, formerly His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for the Colonies; to M. Decrais, former Minister of Colonies in France; to Heer J. T. Cremer, former Minister of Colonies in Holland; and to the Honourable William H. Taft, the United States Secretary of War. Without the aid which was so generously extended to me by these distinguished statesmen the preparation of this Report would have been impossible.

ALLEYNE IRELAND.

November, 1906.

PREFACE—BURMA

These volumes on Burma form part of a Report on Colonial Administration in the Far East which, as explained in the General Preface, I am preparing on behalf of the University of Chicago.

The material here presented is entirely different in form and in substance from that contained in any work hitherto published about the Province. In the writings of Sir George Scott, Dr. Nisbet, Mr. Fielding Hall, Mr. Scott-O'Connor, Sir Arthur Phayre, and Mr. and Mrs. Ferrars, to name only a few of the more important contributors to our knowledge of Burma, the general reader will find a most interesting and attractive presentation of the history, the people, and the affairs of the Province, as well as the most fascinating descriptions of the country.

The information given by these writers, though of the greatest extent and value, is conveyed in a form little suited to the purpose of a Report having as its main object a comparison of administrative methods, of their cost, and of their efficiency. In order to secure material suitable for my final purpose of comparative study, the necessity presented itself of supplementing the work of other writers by a statement of administrative activity in Burma, formal, precise, and detailed, and by a close statistical survey which would furnish a basis of comparison with other countries whose affairs were to be subjected to a similar scrutiny.

The preparation of the present volumes has involved a careful examination of many hundreds of official documents, a large proportion of which are accessible only in England, in India, and in Burma. The result of this examination is presented in a form designed with the sole aim of securing easy reference to a great mass of concise facts about the administration of Burma.

The omission from these volumes of anything in the nature of comment or criticism is one which has been made only after very careful consideration of the advantages and disadvantages of deferring until the conclusion of the whole Report any expression of opinion as to the efficiency or otherwise of the administrative methods in force in each dependency.

The view which has commended itself to me is that criticism, analysis, and comparison can only gain in effectiveness by a delay which will place in the hands of the reporter and of his

readers all the facts necessary to secure a comparative view of each administrative problem throughout the whole area included within the scope of the inquiry.

Without the valuable aid which was most generously extended to me by the Government of Burma, it would have been impossible for me to gather all the information contained in these volumes. Not only was I supplied with more than a thousand volumes of official documents, but, in regard to a number of questions which presented unusual difficulties to an investigator, special statements were furnished me by various officials of the Government.

I acknowledge with sincere gratitude the assistance which was officially extended to me through the countenance of His Honour Sir Herbert Thirkell White, K.C.I.E., Lieutenant-Governor of Burma, and of Sir Frederick Fryer, K.C.S.I., and Sir Hugh Barnes, K.C.S.I., who, in turn, preceded the present Lieutenant-Governor in the occupancy of that high post.

After his appointment to the Council of India, Sir Hugh Barnes very kindly allowed me to lay before him a number of points in regard to which I had experienced some difficulty, and gave me the benefit of his intimate knowledge of Indian administration in their elucidation.

I am indebted to Sir Arthur Godley, K.C.B., Permanent Under Secretary of State for India, for supplying me with much valuable information which I had failed to obtain from other sources.

To Dr. John Nisbet I owe my best thanks for permission to make a number of extensive quotations from his admirable work *Burma under British Rule—and Before*.

To Mr. Frederick William Thomas, Librarian of the India Office, I am under great obligations for his courtesy in affording me every possible assistance when I was working at the India Office Library.

Finally, to my friend, Sir George Scott, K.C.I.E., I owe a debt of gratitude for the stimulating interest he has taken in my work, for a host of valuable suggestions, and for the vast stores of information contained in his writings.

ALLEYNE IRELAND.

November, 1906.

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CHAPTER I.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF BURMA

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For further references consult the Bibliographical Appendix.

AREA AND BOUNDARIES.

The Province of Burma stretches along the whole sea-line of the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal, and covers a range of country which reaches from the 10th degree of north latitude, where the mouth of the Pakchan River forms its southernmost boundary with the Malay Peninsula, to the 28th degree of north latitude, where the dependent State of Hkamti Lông and the Northern Kachin hills reach a boundary still undefined, and circumscribed in parts at least only by wild border tribes.

The eastern boundary of the Province touches Yünnan, the Chinese Shan States, the French Province of Indo-China, the Siamese Tai States, and Siam proper, and finally follows the Pakchan River down to the Bay of Bengal.

The area thus enclosed includes, besides Burma proper, the Northern and Southern Shan States, the States of Mông Mit and its dependency Mông Lang, the States of Hkamti Lông, Hsawng Hsup, Sinkaling Hkamti, and the Chin and Kachin hill tracts, all of which are under the administration of the Government of Burma.

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The total area of the Province is estimated at 238,700 square miles, of which Burma proper occupies 168,573 square miles, the Chin Hills some 10,250 square miles, and the Shan States, which comprise the whole of the eastern portion of the Province, some 59,915 square miles.

The area of the Province of Burma, according to its civil divisions, is shown in the following table:—

LOWER BURMA.		UPPER BURMA.	
<i>Division.</i>	<i>Area.</i>	<i>Division.</i>	<i>Area.</i>
Arakan	18,540 sq. miles.	Mandalay	29,373 sq. miles.
Pegu	13,257	Sagaing	30,038
Irrawaddy	13,440	Minbu	17,172
Tenasserim	35,924	Meiktila	10,852
Total	81,161 sq. miles.	Shan States	59,915
		Chin Hills.	10,250
		Total	157,600 sq. miles.

It is seen from the above figures that the area of the Province of Burma is somewhat greater than that of France (207,218 square miles) and somewhat less than that of the State of Texas (262,290 square miles).

The extreme length of the Province is 1,200 miles, and this is also approximately the length of its seaboard. Its extreme width between the 92d and the 101st degrees of longitude, at about 21 degrees north latitude, is 575 miles.

POPULATION.

As a chapter of this Report will be devoted to the population of Burma, it is unnecessary to do more at present than state the salient points in regard to population disclosed by the Census Report of 1901.

The Census of 1901 was taken on the night of March 1, and showed that the total population of the whole Province, including the Chin Hills and the Shan States, was 10,490,624, of which number 5,342,033 were males and 5,148,591 females.

The classification of the population of the whole Province according to religions gives the following results: Buddhists, 9,184,121; Animists, 399,390; Musalmans, 339,446; Hindus, 285,484; Christians, 147,525; adherents of other religions, 7,647; persons for whom religious statistics were not obtainable, 127,011.

The distribution of the population in the various civil divisions of the Province is shown in the following table:—

LOWER BURMA.		UPPER BURMA.	
<i>Division.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Division.</i>	<i>Population.</i>
Arakan	762,102	Mandalay	777,338
Pegu	1,820,638	Sagaing	1,000,483
Irrawaddy	1,663,669	Minbu	1,076,280
Tenasserim	1,159,558	Meiktila	992,807
Total	5,405,967	Shan States	1,137,444
		Chin Hills	100,305
		Total	5,084,657

Of the total population dealt with by the Census of 1901 the various indigenous races were represented as follows: Burmese, 6,508,682; Karens, 717,859; Arakanese, 405,143; Kachins, 64,405; Talaings, 321,898; Taungthus, 168,301; Shans, 787,087; Chins, 179,292.

PHYSICAL FEATURES.

The Province of Burma falls into three natural divisions: Arakan, the Irrawaddy basin, and the old Province of Tenasserim. Of these Arakan is a strip of country lying on the seaward slopes of the range of hills known as the Arakan Yomas. It stretches from Cape Negrais on the south to the Naaf estuary, which divides it from the Chittagong division of the Bengal Presidency, on the north; and it includes the districts of Sandoway, Kyaukpyu, Akyab, and Northern Arakan, an area of some 18,540 square miles. The northern part of this tract is barren, hilly country, but in the west and south are rich alluvial plains, containing some of the most fertile lands of the Province.

To the east of the Arakan division, and separated from it by the Arakan Yomas, lies the main body of Burma, in the basin of the Irrawaddy. This tract falls into four subdivisions.

First, there is the high land tract, including the hilly country at the sources of the Chindwin and the upper waters of the Irrawaddy, the districts of the Ruby Mines, Upper Chindwin, Katha, Bhamo, and Myitkyina, and the Northern and Southern Shan States. In the Shan States there are a few open plateaus, fertile and well populated; and Maymyo, the hill station to which the Government of Burma migrates in the hot weather, stands in the Pyin-u-lwin plateau, some 3,500 feet above the sea.

The second tract is that known as the dry zone of Burma, and it includes the whole of the lowlands lying between the Arakan Yomas and the foot of the Shan plateau. It stretches along both sides of the Irrawaddy from the north of Mandalay

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to Thayetmyo, and embraces the Lower Chindwin, Shwebo, Sagaing, Mandalay, Kyauksè, Meiktila, Yamèthin, Myingyan, Magwe, Pakôkku, and Minbu districts. This tract consists mostly of undulating lowlands, but it is broken towards the south by the Pegu Yomas, a considerable range of hills which divides the two remaining tracts of the Irrawaddy basin.

On the west, between the Pegu and the Arakan Yomas, stretches the Irrawaddy delta, a vast expanse of level plain, 12,000 square miles in area, falling in a gradual, unbroken slope from its apex not far south of Prone down to the sea. This delta, which includes the districts of Bassein, Myaungmya, Ma-ubin, Henzada, Hanthawaddy, Tharrawaddy, Pegu, and Rangoon town, consists almost entirely of a rich alluvial deposit; and the whole area, which between Cape Negrais and Elephant Point is no less than 137 miles wide, is fertile in the highest degree.

To the east lies a tract of country which, though geographically part of the Irrawaddy basin, is cut off from it by the Pegu Yomas, and forms a separate system draining into the Sittang River. The northern portion of this tract, which stretches on the east to the right bank of the Salween River, is hilly. The remainder towards the confluence of the Salween, Gyaing, and Ataran Rivers consists of broad fertile plains. The whole of this tract is comprised in the districts of Toungoo and Thatôn, together with the Salween hill tract and the northern parts of the district of Amherst, which form the northern portion of the Tenasserim administrative division.

The third natural division of Burma is the old Province of Tenasserim, which, constituted in 1826 with Moulmein as its capital, formed the nucleus from which the British supremacy throughout Burma has grown. It is a narrow strip of country lying between the Bay of Bengal and the high range of hills which forms the eastern boundary of the Province towards Siam. It comprises the districts of Mergui and Tavoy and a part of Amherst, and includes also the Mergui Archipelago. The surface of this tract is mountainous, and much intersected with streams.

Burma proper is encircled on three sides by a wall of mountain ranges. The Arakan Yomas, starting from Cape Negrais,

Mountains. extend northwards more or less parallel with the coast till they join the Chin and Naga hills. They then form part of a system of ranges which curve north of the sources of the Chindwin River, and, with the Kumon range and the hills of the Jade and Amber Mines, make up a

high land tract, separated from the great Northern Shan plateau by the gorges of the Irrawaddy River. On the east the Kachin, Shan, and Karen hills, extending from the valley of the Irrawaddy into China, form a continuous barrier and boundary, and tail off into a narrow range which forms the eastern watershed of the Salween River, and separates Tenasserim from Siam.

The highest peak of the Arakan Yomas, Liklang, rises nearly ten thousand feet above the sea; and in the Eastern Kachin hills, which run northwards from the state of Mōng Mit to join the high range dividing the basins of the Irrawaddy and the Salween, are two peaks, Sabu and Worang, which rise to a height of 11,200 feet above sea-level. The Kumon range, running down from the Hkamti country east of Assam to near Mogaung, ends in a peak known as Shweaunggyi, which reaches some 5,750 feet; and there are several peaks in the Ruby Mines district which rise beyond 7,000 feet.

Compared with these ranges, the Pegu Yomas assume the proportions of mere hills. Popa, a detached peak in the Myingyan district, belongs to this system, and rises to a height of nearly 5,000 feet; but it is interesting mainly as an extinct volcano, a land-mark, and as an object of superstitious folk-lore throughout the whole of central Burma. Mud volcanoes occur at Minbu, but they are not in any sense mountains, resembling rather the hot springs which are to be found in many parts of Burma. They are merely craters raised above the level of the surrounding country by the gradual accretion of the soft, oily mud which overflows at frequent intervals whenever a discharge of gas occurs.

Spurs of the Chin Hills run down the whole length of the Lower Chindwin district, almost to Sagaing, and one hill, Powindaung, is particularly noted on account of its innumerable cave temples, which are said to hold no less than 446,444 images of Buddha. Huge caves, of which the most noted are the Farm caves, occur in the hills near Moulmein, and they, too, are full of relics of their ancient use as temples, though they are now deserted.

The most important river of Burma is the Irrawaddy. It rises far beyond the confines of Burma, in the unexplored regions where India, Tibet, and China meet; and its sources

Rivers. have never been discovered. The total length of the Irrawaddy from its sources to the sea is about 1,000 miles. It is full of islands and sand-banks, many of the former and all of the latter being submerged during the rains. New sand-

banks are continually forming and old ones being removed, and the deep channel changes in many places every season, and in some places even oftener; but the course of the river, flowing, as it does, everywhere, except in the delta, between high banks, alters inappreciably.

The waters of the Irrawaddy are extremely muddy, and the mud is carried far out to sea. The river commences to rise in March. It rises and falls several times until June, and then, rising pretty steadily, it attains its maximum height about September, at which time it is about thirty-five feet above its dry-season level at Prome.

The Irrawaddy is navigable for large steamers all the year round as far as Bhamo in Upper Burma; but, owing to the existence of three narrow defiles in the course of the river, small steamers and launches are often unable to get beyond the Second Defile.

The First Defile is below Ti-gyaing, and it presents little difficulty for steamers. The Second Defile is between Shwegu and Sinkan, the latter village being situated about twenty miles below Bhamo. The Third Defile begins ten or twelve miles above Bhamo, and extends up to Sinbo.

From Bhamo to Sinbo no steamers can run during the rains,—that is to say, usually from about the end of June to the beginning of November; but from November to June even small steamers can ascend the Third Defile.

There are boats at almost every village on the banks of the Irrawaddy, and the river can be crossed without difficulty almost throughout its whole course.

The principal tributary of the Irrawaddy is the Chindwin, which joins the larger river above the town of Pakókku. It is navigable for about 300 miles from its confluence with the Irrawaddy.

The only large river in Burma, exclusive of the Irrawaddy, is the Salween, a huge river, believed from the volume of its waters to rise in the Tibetan mountains. It is probably longer than the Irrawaddy, but it is not to be compared with that river in importance. It is, in fact a mere torrent walled in on either side with banks, varying from 3,000 to 6,000 feet high, and quite unnavigable, except for short distances between the rapids of its lower reaches.

Burma has very few lakes of any size. The largest lake in the Province is that of Indawgyi in the Mogaung subdivision of the Myitkyina district. It is about sixteen miles from Lakes. north to south, and about six miles from east to west in its broadest part in the rains. It finds its outlet to the north in the Indaw River. The only other lake of any size in the

Province is the Indaw, in the Katha district, which has some value as a fishery.

In most parts of Lower Burma, and in portions of Upper Burma, the abundant rainfall renders the climate moist and depressing for nearly half the year, but in the dry zone,

Climate. which extends across the country from the 20th to the 22d degree of north latitude, the rainfall is less copious and the climate less humid. An examination of the meteorological returns of Burma suggests the following classification of the Province according to the mean annual rainfall:—

1. **THE LITTORAL AREA.** This area embraces the whole seacoast of Arakan and Tenasserim. The mean annual rainfall in the Arakan seacoast districts does not vary much from the mean annual rainfall in the Tenasserim seacoast districts. The physical conditions are precisely similar, as we find both in Arakan and in Tenasserim a high range of hills running parallel with the coast line and at no great distance from it. In the Littoral Area the mean annual rainfall varies between 182 inches at Moulmein and 210 inches at Sandoway.

2. **THE DELTAIC AREA.** In this division are included the districts of Bassein, Henzada, Ma-ubin, Hanthawaddy, Tharrawaddy, Pegu, and part of Toungoo and Shwegyin. Except in the eastern part of the Shwegyin district, where the rainfall is much heavier, the climatic conditions and physical features of all these districts are similar. There is no range of mountains to arrest the rain-charged clouds, and the result is that the rainfall is less heavy than that of the Littoral Area. In the Deltaic Area the mean annual rainfall varies from 85 inches in Henzada to 137 inches in the Shwegyin district. The rainfall at Shwegyin is exceptionally heavy because of the neighbouring hills of the Paunglaung range.

3. **THE CENTRAL AREA.** This tract includes the districts of Toungoo, Prome, and Thayetmyo in Lower Burma and those of Pyinmana, Magwe, Yamèthin, Meiktila, Kyauksè, Minbu, Myingyan, Pakôkku, Mandalay, Katha, Shwebo, Sagaing, Ye-u, and Lower Chindwin in Upper Burma. In this area the rainfall varies from an average annual fall of 84 inches in Toungoo, 51 inches in Pyinmana, and 44 inches in Prome to an annual average fall of 23 inches in Kyauksè and Pakôkku.

4. **THE SUB-MONTANE AREA.** Under this head are included the districts of Upper Chindwin, Bhamo, Ruby Mines, Northern Arakan, Salween, and parts of Shwegyin and Toungoo. The rainfall in this area is considerably heavier than in the Central

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

Zone, and varies from 70 inches at Bhamo to 127 inches in the Northern Arakan hill tracts.

The variation in the rainfall is clearly due to the following causes: the heavily charged rain-clouds brought up by the south-west monsoon (approximately from April to October) are partly arrested by the peaks of the Arakan Yomas and by the hills of Tenasserim, which drain them of most of their contents,—a circumstance which accounts for the heavy rainfall in the Littoral Area. In the delta the rainfall is still heavy, though not so heavy as in the littoral tracts, where the hill ranges act as condensers. The clouds that escape the Arakan hills in their passage to the north-west do not lose as much moisture as those which pass directly over the hills, and accordingly we find the rainfall heavier in Pyinmana in the east than in Minbu to the west, though they are situated in about the same latitude. In the same way Thayetmyo and Prome, which are more sheltered by the Arakan Yomas, have a much smaller fall than Toungoo, where the rain-clouds arrive after passing over the plains of the delta and the comparatively insignificant hills of the Pegu Yomas.

The scanty rainfall of the Central Area is aggravated by the want of forests, which is noticeable in all except the southern portions of that area. The Central Area, unlike the rest of Burma, contains no forests of importance, if we except the districts of Toungoo, Pyinmana, Prome, and part of Magwe and Thayetmyo.

As far as rainfall is concerned, Burma experiences a dry season and a wet season, the former extending roughly from October to May, the latter from June to September. This division appears very distinctly in the following table:—

RAINFALL IN INCHES.

Observations taken at five stations in Lower Burma and at five stations in Upper Burma, 1899.

LOWER BURMA.			UPPER BURMA		
	October to May.	June to September		October to May.	June to September.
Akyab	40.94	186.72	Bhamo	25.38	65.38
Rangoon	27.66	76.31	Mandalay	19.12	22.07
Moulmein	32.12	132.17	Katha	36.62	49.41
Bassein	42.73	75.41	Sagaing	13.37	22.76
Tavoy	49.40	171.86	Mogök	40.25	78.93

It will be seen from the above table that the difference between the wet and the dry season is more marked in Lower than in Upper Burma, and this difference becomes more apparent when the complete rainfall statistics are consulted; and it will be noted that the rainfall of the dry season, October to May, is distributed over eight months, whereas the rainfall of the wet season, June to September, is compressed into four months.

Rainfall statistics for twenty stations in Lower Burma, and for sixteen stations in Upper Burma, for the five years, 1895 to 1899, will be found in Appendix E.

The temperature of Burma varies almost as much as the rainfall, but except in the dense forest tracts and in the remoter portions of some of the outlying districts of Upper Burma, where malarial fever is prevalent, the Province is by no means unhealthy either for Europeans or for the natives of the country.

The following tables give a sufficient indication of the general character of the temperature of Burma. Further statistics of temperature will be found in Appendix E.

AVERAGE TEMPERATURE IN THE SHADE IN DEGREES FAHRENHEIT.

Observations taken at five stations in Lower Burma and at five stations in Upper Burma during 1899.

LOWER BURMA.					UPPER BURMA.				
Place of Observation.	May.		December		Place of Observation.	May.		December.	
	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.		Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.
Akyab	87.03	75.00	79.00	48.00	Bhamo	92.06	72.09	75.02	49.09
Rangoon	86.09	75.04	87.04	62.05	Mandalay	95.33	78.96	80.54	57.28
Moulmein	88.00	75.60	87.27	66.44	Sagaing	98.29	73.70	70.90	54.25
Bassein	87.11	75.33	82.80	61.50	Minbu	92.67	78.31	80.65	57.27
Tavoy	89.69	75.89	89.47	67.94	Magwe	98.64	79.22	81.41	60.54

It is clear from the above figures that Lower Burma has a characteristic tropical climate, and Upper Burma a typical sub-tropical climate. These two kinds of climate merge into each other, of course, in the belt composed of the northern part of Lower Burma and the southern part of Upper Burma; but

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the division appears quite clearly in the following tables, and is enforced by reference to the complete temperature statistics of the Province.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MAXIMUM READINGS IN MAY AND IN
DECEMBER, 1899.

LOWER BURMA.				UPPER BURMA.			
Place of Observation.	Mean of maximum readings in May.	Mean of maximum readings in December.	Difference.	Place of Observation.	Mean of maximum readings in May.	Mean of maximum readings in December.	Difference.
Akyab	87.03	79.00	8.03	Bhamo	92.06	75.02	17.04
Rangoon	86.09	87.04	.95	Mandalay	95.33	80.54	14.79
Moulmein	88.00	87.27	.73	Sagaing	98.29	70.90	27.39
Bassein	87.11	82.80	4.31	Minbu	92.67	80.65	12.02
Tavoy	89.69	89.47	.22	Magwe	98.64	81.41	17.23

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MINIMUM READINGS IN MAY AND IN
DECEMBER, 1899.

LOWER BURMA.				UPPER BURMA.			
Place of Observation.	Mean of minimum readings in May.	Mean of minimum readings in December.	Difference.	Place of Observation.	Mean of minimum readings in May.	Mean of minimum readings in December.	Difference.
Akyab	75.00	48.00	27.00	Bhamo	72.09	49.09	23.00
Rangoon	75.04	62.05	12.99	Mandalay	78.96	57.28	21.68
Moulmein	75.00	66.44	9.16	Sagaing	73.70	54.25	19.45
Bassein	75.33	61.50	13.83	Minbu	78.31	57.27	21.04
Tavoy	75.89	67.94	7.95	Magwe	79.22	60.54	18.68

THE FORESTS AND VEGETATION OF BURMA.

A great part of the Province of Burma is covered with dense forest growth. The area included in the Forestry Report for 1904 was 78,856,377 acres, and this by no means represents the total forest area of the Province. The following description of the forests of Burma, which is taken from the *British Burma Gazetteer* of 1880, should be consulted in connection with the chapter of this volume which is devoted to Forestry Administration.

GENERAL CLASSIFICATION OF BURMESE FORESTS.

Evergreen Forests.

1. Littoral Forests.
 - A. Mangrove.
 - B. Tidal.
2. Swamp Forests.
3. Tropical Forests.
 - A. Closed.
 - B. Open or Moist.
4. Evergreen Hill or Temperate.
 - A. Dry Hill.
 - B. Pine.
 - C. Damp Hill.

Deciduous Forests.

1. Open Forests.
 - A. Hill Eng.
 - B. Eng or Laterite.
 - C. Low.
2. Mixed Forests.
 - A. Alluvial.
 - a. Lower.
 - b. Savannah.
 - c. Beach.
 - B. Upper or Teak.
 - a. Moist.
 - b. Dry.
3. Dry Forests.
 - A. Mixed.
 - B. Sha (Cutch).
 - C. Hill.

The littoral forests stretch all along the coast wherever flat shores and alluvial deposits prevail. They do not, however, cover the whole extent of the country, but are restricted to the alluvial formation, and more especially to the immediate vicinity of the tidal rivers and channels. They are often enough interrupted by other kinds of forests which either grow upon the higher ground or diluvial formations, and are not uniformly composed of trees of the same species.

Littoral Forests. A. *Mangrove Forests* occupy the flat, muddy shores along the sea, and especially along the estuaries of rivers and streams, forming the outer skirt of vegetation, often extending, during flood tide, far into the sea. They form rather dense and usually low forests of from 40 to 70 feet in height, with glossy dark green foliage.

B. *Tidal Forests* in many respects resemble those just described, especially along the borders of tidal channels, but they are generally devoid, or nearly so, of true mangroves. They not only occupy the seashore, but also the banks of tidal rivers far inland. They are even found where the influence of the tide is but slight, and the water but slightly brackish. Their average height is from 40 to 50 feet; but in some cases this is exceeded, and in others so greatly reduced that the tidal forests consist of little more than shrubs. During spring tides they are more or less inundated, but ordinary tides seldom reach them.

The Swamp Forests are frequent in the deep alluvium of the Irrawaddy valley, especially between this river and the Hlaing, where they attain their greatest development. They are found also along the Sittang, especially round the small lakes and swamps, where they are often blended with the surrounding forests; and they are not unrepresented along the streams of Tenasserim, especially towards the south. The true swamp forests are restricted to deep alluvia, where they appear

especially along the courses of streamlets and in depressions covered by water up to four or five feet, or a little more, during the rainy season. As in evergreen tropical forests, four strata of vegetation can easily be distinguished,—the lofty trees, the smaller trees, the shrubs, and the soil clothing. The lofty trees are from 60 to 70 feet high. Climbers are plentiful, and some of them are very curious, having short stems only a few feet high, and sending out long flexuose and crooked branches, forming a complete entanglement through which it is almost impossible to penetrate. Orchids are very common, covering in masses the branches and stems of trees, especially round lakes.

The tropical forests owe their origin to a damp, equable climate, and were no doubt of much greater extent at a former period. As the destruction went on, the climate became drier and drier, and they became restricted to the more protected valleys.

Tropical Forests.

A. In *Closed Tropical Forests* the average height of the trees ranges from 150 to 200 feet, rarely less; and trees 250 feet in height are of no rare occurrence. The clean stem of the taller trees varies from 80 feet to 100, and more. Fires rarely occur, and the fallen leaves thus decay slowly, and form a rich, black humus soil. These forests are clothed with an unbroken stratum of vegetation of 150 to 200 feet in depth, and there are often four or five strata of vegetation distinguishable. The lofty trees tower above all others, forming, as it were, a leaf-shedding open forest above the lower stratum of evergreen trees. The medial stratum is formed by large trees on shorter trunks, chiefly evergreens. A third stratum is formed of smaller trees, all, or nearly all, evergreens, and seldom higher than 30 to 50 feet. Another stratum consists of shrubs. Many shoot up with a single stem, like a treelet, whilst others are climbers or creepers. The last and lowest stratum is the vegetation which covers the ground. Owing to a certain degree of darkness which reigns in these forests all the year round, the number of herbs is comparatively small. In the denser parts the ground is covered with little else than decaying leaves and rotting trunks of trees, but where the forests become more open, as is especially the case along the banks of streams, the vegetation becomes rich. The mosses are but sparingly represented, and are restricted more to the rocky slopes and to boulders in and along the streams, whilst the tree stems are poorly inhabited, chiefly by scale mosses. Lichens are still more scanty, but bamboos are frequently seen covered by three or four very singular lichens with greenish-white thallus. Fungi are largely developed, especially during the rains.

B. *Open or Moist Tropical Forests* differ from the last chiefly in their lesser degree of dampness and the reduction of the vegetative strata to only three or four, as also in the smaller number of climbers. They are thus more open and less difficult to penetrate. They are, to a certain extent, a combination of mixed and tropical forests, and are found especially along the eastern base of the Pegu Yomas. In the Rangoon district they occupy the lower and moister parts of this range; but they usually grow on more gravelly soil or on raised shallow alluvium resting on gravel or sandstone. They are often difficult to distinguish from the mixed forests, the two merging into each other where the terrain is of a varied character. The shrub-

bery in them is comparatively scanty, and often enough the herbage on the ground differs in little or nothing from that in the more shady mixed forests.

The evergreen hill forests are the product of the influence of elevation.

Evergreen Hill or Temperate Forests. Although they descend in Tenasserim as far down as 3,000 feet, they nowhere occur at the same elevation on the Pegu Yomas,—a result probably

due to the impermeability of the soil and to the dry north-west winds of the hot season.

A. *Dry Hill Forests* occupy the ridges and summits of the hill ranges, resembling in this respect the upper mixed forests. They range usually from 4,000 to 7,000 feet elevation, but along unfavourable exposures (especially along the south and south-west faces of the ridges) they may be found as low down as 3,000 feet. The average height of the trees in them is about 40 to 60 feet, and the growth is often stunted and gnarled, especially in exposed situations. The dryness during the hot season is considerable, and fires are common, and the formation of humus soil is, therefore, only partial. These forests may be divided into "upper dry" and "lower dry." The upper dry forests are restricted to the highest crests and ridges of the eastern hills, usually above 6,000 feet in elevation, and they are rarely, if ever, subject to fires, owing to their remoteness from human habitations. They gradually pass into the lower dry forests in such a way that it is often quite impossible to say where one begins and the other ends; but, where they are much exposed to the prevailing winds and to the influence of the weather, they appear to be more abruptly separated. They consist chiefly of stunted and often pygmean trees up to 30 (most of them, however, only up to 20) feet in height, with very short stems and compact and usually spherical crowns, varying in colour from a glossy yellowish to a brownish-green tint, showing numerous gnarled and crooked branches. They often grow so close together that it is difficult to force one's way through them. Owing to the limited area which rises to the height of 6,000 feet, these forests are necessarily limited in extent.

The lower dry forests are stunted forests of a mean height, varying, according to the exposure and resulting degree of dampness, from 50 to 80 feet. They occupy nearly all the exposed ridges from about 3,000 feet upwards. Fires are frequent, but not regular. Bamboos are prevalent, and climbers, shrubs, half-shrubs, and ferns occur. The ground is covered with grasses and other plants where the forest is open. The trees are inhabited by numerous mosses and scale mosses, as also by lichens, which latter appear here especially developed.

B. *Pine Forests* are so called from the *Pinus khasya* which forms the greater portion of them, and they are local and restricted to unfavourable situations; that is to say, to the south and south-west slopes of the hills. They are much subject to fires, which are destructive in the extreme, often burning down the finest trees. The average height of these forests, which are very open and without climber vegetation, is from 70 to 80 feet, sometimes more, but along exposed slopes very much less. Really pure pine forests are rarely found; but they are more frequently mixed up with trees from the dry hill forests which occupy the various and deep narrow valleys.

The ground is usually densely covered by the fallen needles of the pine, so much so indeed that no vegetation can spring up except scantily.

C. *Damp Hill Forests*, ranging from about 3,000 to 6,000 feet elevation, so much resemble, in external aspect, the true tropical forests of the plains that they can be distinguished from them only by the occurrence of botanically different trees, and chiefly by the total or nearly total absence of certain plant families. The average height stands a little below that of the tropical forests. They are so dense and moist that fires never enter them, and the formation of the humus is, therefore, undisturbed. These forests occur only in favourable situations and in sheltered valleys, especially along streams.

The Deciduous Forests of Burma yield the most valuable timber. They are entirely or almost entirely leafless during the dry weather; but, owing to the heavy dew, probably, many of the trees put out their young leaves in the hot weather, whilst the shedding is not simultaneous in all trees, nor does it take place always at the same period, setting in later in trees in damper tracts. Jungle fires are common and destructive. The variety of these forests is great, and the demarcation between the varieties often very uncertain. The three chief varieties, where they present themselves in a pure character, are well marked, and have been classed as Open, Mixed, and Dry. The open, or diluvial, comprise nearly all those forests found on diluvial formations. Practically, they appear as dry and more or less stunted or crooked forests, at present of little value except for the eng (*Dipterocarpus tuberculatus*), which yields a valuable wood much employed by Burmans, and used chiefly for house-posts, canoes, and planking. The trees grow far apart, and there is but little undergrowth.

A. *Hill Eng Forests* are found principally on metamorphic or schistose rocks or on laterite, on all the lower spurs of the hills east of the Sittang River up to 2,000 feet elevation. In external appearance they are identical with the Eng Forests lower down. The average height varies from 30 to 60 feet.

B. *Eng or Laterite Forests* grow principally upon laterite, but they occur also on other diluvial formations in a less developed form. The average height is variable, depending chiefly upon the depth of the substratum. In pure laterite it is depressed to from 30 to 40 feet, while an admixture of clayey or loamy soil causes the eng-trees to grow up to a height of from 70 to 80 feet. The trees, owing to their coarse, fissured bark, are especially fitted for the support of epiphytical plants, and these are, therefore, developed here to a degree which would appear extraordinary, were it not that they comprise mostly such plants as need light rather than dampness for their development.

C. *Low Forests* resemble the foregoing in most respects, but differ from them essentially in that they are greatly mixed up with trees of the Lower Mixed Forests, and grow, like these, on clay or loam. The ground is rather densely covered by long and stiff grasses, and the eng-tree is seldom found. These low forests show many transitions into Lower Mixed Forests along their lines of contact, and it is often very difficult to distinguish between the two.

Mixed Forests differ from Open Forests amongst other things in the general aspect and in the height and growth of the trees, as also in the prevalence of climbers. They are most important to a forester, but

Mixed Forests. at the same time most difficult to subdivide into marked varieties. They may be divided into the two following divisions, each of which may be subdivided again under its respective headings: A. Alluvial Mixed Forests. B. Upper Mixed Forests.

A. *Alluvial Mixed Forests* occupy chiefly the alluvial plains from the base of the hills to the banks of the larger rivers. Towards the Irrawaddy, the Sittang, and other large rivers they assume the character of savannahs, while towards the hills they gradually pass into Upper Mixed Forests. They are of a moister character than the Upper Mixed Forests, and, therefore, are richer in trees and climbers, but lower in growth and much poorer in bamboo growth.

a. Lower Mixed Forests are distinguished from the Low Forests, with which they often alternate, chiefly by the absence of trees characteristic of the Laterite Forests, and by the absence or scarcity of any dense grass-clothing on the ground. Their general aspect is also greatly different, being more closed by numerous climbers and creepers. The average height is about 70 to 80 feet, but 100 feet is sometimes reached.

b. Savannah Forests occupy chiefly deep alluvium, where they attain their greatest development near the larger rivers. They appear also in shallower alluvium between hill ranges, along larger streams, especially when these run through open valleys. The trees are as low as those in the Eng Forests, but differ a great deal from the Eng-Forest trees in their habits and growth. They have very short stems (a peculiarity produced by all deep alluviums), and are often not higher than the elephant grass which surrounds them. Their crowns are usually disproportionately developed, rounded and spreading, or sometimes much lengthened or flattened out. There are, however, many exceptions with regard to the last-mentioned quality. The chief character of these forests lies in the very dense, almost impenetrable growth of elephant grass, amongst which the trees grow apart, and often at great distances from one another, in which latter case the localities partake more of the character of true savannahs. Owing to the coarse, almost woody stems of these coarse grasses, jungle fires, which are here regular, do great damage, for nearly all the stems of the trees are found on examination to be scorched or otherwise injured. All these trees, with hardly any exception, grow also in the Lower Mixed Forests, whence they have most probably immigrated. Sometimes the trees grow close together, when they assume more the character of Lower Mixed Forests, from which, however, they can be distinguished by their undergrowth consisting of coarse elephant grass.

c. The Beach Jungles are a sort of Lower Mixed Forest, containing a combination of trees, which occur chiefly along the sandy beaches of the sea. They are seldom of any great extent, but usually form a narrow strip, much interrupted by other forests, wherever clayey or rocky ground turns up. They never become inundated by the tides, although they often border the beach at the water's edge. These forests are very incompletely, if at all, developed in Pegu, owing to the clayey alluvium; but they occur not only

along the Arakan coast, but still more so in Tenasserim, where *Casuarina muricata* becomes a prevailing tree, while *Spinifex squarrosus*, a curious grass, facilitates the binding of the loose sand.

B. *Upper Mixed Forests* are the principal seat of teak, and they might, therefore, be called *par excellence* the Teak Forests of Burma. They occupy exclusively the soft sandstone formations of the Pegu Yoma, and also the older strata of the hills to the eastward. Those growing on the latter formations differ, however, a good deal from those growing on sandstone, not only in their general growth, but also by an admixture of trees which do not occur on the sandstone. While on the Pegu Yoma they attain an average height (especially on the higher and drier ridges) of about 120 feet, those growing on syenitic and schistose substrata seldom exceed 80 to 90 feet in height, and the growth of their clean stems is never so straight and regular; in other words, the soft sandstones produce lofty while metamorphic rocks yield only big, trees. Grass-clothing of the soil is only exceptional, and is then chiefly composed of the so-called teak grass. The usually yellowish or grey surface soil, the product of disintegration of sandstone, is therefore everywhere exposed. Jungle fires are regular and frequent, but not very injurious except in years when the bamboos have died off. These Upper Mixed Forests might be divided into Moist and Dry Upper Mixed Forests. Such a distinction, however, is too artificial, for these two varieties are nothing more than the product of favourable and unfavourable exposures.

Dry Forests are restricted to the formation of compact calcareous sandstone and to shallow alluvium resting on such or on diluvium. The trees are gen-

Dry Forests. erally middle-sized, of an average height of from 50 to 70 feet, but on the higher Yoma ridges, under favourable conditions, they grow up to about 100 feet. Carbonate of lime appears to be the principal cause of the modification of vegetation here. The forest is very open, but looks rather uninviting, owing to the prevalence of thorny trees and shrubs. Jungle fires are here more frequent than in any other forests in Burma, and they are often very destructive.

A. *Mixed Dry Forests* very much resemble in external aspect those forests in Behar which grow on the lower stony hills. Teak is frequent, but of very inferior growth.

B. *Sha Forests* are made up principally of sha (*Acacia catechu*). This tree, although it also occurs sparingly in the Irrawaddy zone, becomes here a conspicuous feature, in the same way as eng, teak, and similar trees do in other parts of Pegu. Along with sha, a small number of trees, a curious mixture of open and mixed forests species, occur together with a few trees which are peculiar to the Prome zone.

C. *Hill Forests* may best be designated as crooked and low Upper Mixed Forests, with an admixture of Dry Forest trees, containing certain temperate forms indicative of the influence of elevation. The average height of trees is here reduced to a minimum,—that is, from 10 to 30 feet,—and the trees are scattered and crooked, like those in an Eng Forest. Their aspect is peculiar in the extreme. This strange growth of trees is not attributable to elevation, but to two powerful agencies: first, the dry winds and the dry climate generally (they are situated in and near the Prome zone), the influence of

which is increased by the second agency; namely, the presence of lime in the sandstone. Besides the unfavourable conditions already named must also be added their exposed situation and the solar radiation. Jungle fires occur regularly, burning not only the scanty, dried-up vegetation, but also running up the short stems of the little trees and often consuming the shrivelled up mosses and grasses that grow on them.

To the above brief account of the forests of Burma may be added a short description of the land vegetation, which consists of bamboo forests, savannahs, natural pastures, and riparian vegetation. I

Land Vegetation. omit reference to the vegetation of swamps and water, since these forms attain no importance in the Province.

Bamboo Forests. The chief characteristic of the Bamboo Forests lies in their great uniformity and in the poorness of their undergrowth. Seldom more than two different kinds and often only a single kind is found, and, therefore, the different varieties of the forests might be called after the prevailing description of bamboo that is found in them. All the bamboo stocks usually flower together at the same time, and this is the case also with those growing as undergrowth in the forests. They then die off, one by one, after maturing their seeds. It is believed that they do so regularly after a certain number of years, which is variously set down at from forty to sixty. For the larger kinds this may be a fair estimate.

Savannahs. The Savannahs, or, as they are often called by Europeans in Pegu, elephant-grass jungles, cover the plains in deep alluvium, where the arboreous growth has been either quite suppressed by the powerful coarse grasses which compose them or the trees are so scattered that only one or two can be seen at great distances from each other. They do not, therefore, form true forests. Along the Irrawaddy, especially towards its delta, they are often very extended, and in the lower parts between the Pegu and the Sittang Rivers, at about the latitude of the town of Pegu, they assume such dimensions that they may be compared with those occurring in America.

Natural Pastures. The Natural Pastures in contradistinction to meadows, which latter are either produced by culture or grow up in neglected culture lands, are of very limited occurrence, for they are usually replaced by the Savannahs and Bamboo Forests described above. The characteristic of these pastures is the absence or scarcity of such coarse grasses as have been already treated of as elephant grasses. While the savannahs give fodder only to buffaloes and elephants, the natural pastures afford pasturage for domestic cattle. They are found best developed in the higher regions of the hill ranges, especially in the alpine region. Those which occur lower down in the plains are all of very doubtful character, being either the undergrowth left after forests have disappeared by some natural causes or the growth upon tracts of land which may possess one or another peculiarity by which the growth of trees became suppressed. The hills of Burma are not high enough to produce, as in the Himalaya, those alpine pastures which come nearest to European pastures, in aspect as well as in character, and there are only three varieties: *a.* Long-grassed or Jungle Pastures; *b.* Short-grassed or Lowland Pastures; and *c.* Hill Pastures.

a. The Long-grassed Pasture is a variety which is to be found principally on shallow alluvium resting on impermeable strata, chiefly along the base of the Yomas. Such pastures are found most developed in the Poozoundoung valley, and especially on the cultivated alluvium in the neighbourhood of Kya-eng, where they alternate with and often border the low forests. They are actually nothing but the undergrowth of these low forests, and consist of similar andropogonous grasses, together with similar shrubs and other plants which are to be found in them.

b. The Lowland Pastures appear either as dry and meagre or as moist or sappy pastures. The latter variety offers possibly the best pasturage for all kinds of cattle. In general appearance they resemble European meadows more than do any others within the tropics. Those that cover the bottom of shallow lakes offer also, during the hottest part of the year, splendid emerald-green grass plains of limited extent, but they are chiefly restricted to the lower parts of the Sittang valley, especially north of the town of Pegu, while in the Irrawaddy valley, on account of the greater dryness of the atmosphere, they often entirely disappear around the swamps of the savannahs.

c. The Hill Pastures are of limited extent, and are restricted to the sub-temperate region above 6,000 feet in elevation. Such as deserve the name of hill pastures are met with on the higher part of the Loko ridges and on the top of the Nat-toung itself. The escarpments of a western and south-western situation are also often occupied by them as low down as 5,000 feet. They are subject to jungle fires. These hill pastures are hardly more than the undergrowth of pine and hill forests, with or without a few pine or other trees scattered over them. They are always found on situations unfavourably exposed to prevailing winds.

Riparian Vegetation. A vegetation springs up on the bed or along the edges of half-dried-up streams, which is usually distinguished as riparian vegetation, and this is of two kinds, as the streams flow over rocky or pebbly beds or through alluvium.

a. The vegetation of the rocky or stony beds is restricted more to the upper parts of the streams, but those rivers which do not enter the alluvium possess solely rock bed vegetation.

b. The beds of streams when they enter the alluvium have usually a sandy or clayey soil, and only the more rapid rivers carry down pebbles. The fine, loose sand and clay, along the course of such rivers as the Irrawaddy, Sittang, and other large streams, bears a vegetation of an agrarian character. Where flying sand is prevalent or forms extended sand-banks (and this is often the case), one grass makes its appearance before all others, and this is *Saccharum spontaneum*, a sand-binding but very troublesome grass found everywhere over the whole of the Province and of India generally. It possesses the same land-forming qualities along river banks as the mangroves or other sand-binding plants along the seashore, and may be compared in this respect with the reeds of the Danube and other large rivers of Europe.

AGRICULTURE.

The total population of the Province of Burma at the census of 1901 was 10,490,624, and of this number no less than 6,850,763 were returned as being dependent for their livelihood on agricultural pursuits. The Report on the Administration of Burma for 1903-04 gives the total area of the Province under crops, as follows:—

Rice	9,306,551 acres
Millet	1,148,747
Sessamum	993,770
Peas	379,307
Maize	119,989
Cotton	160,126
Fruit and palm trees	429,404
Other cultivation	57,262
Total cultivated area of Province	<u>12,595,156</u>

Agricultural operations are much more varied in Upper than in Lower Burma, where the only important field crop is paddy, and there is little or no artificial irrigation. In Upper Burma a large variety of field crops are grown, the principal of which are paddy, sessamum, maize, jowar, cotton, beans, wheat, and gram. Excepting *mayin*, or dry-weather paddy, the first six of these are rainy-season crops.

MINERAL RESOURCES.

The mineral resources of Burma are as yet almost entirely undeveloped. According to the census of 1901 the number of persons in the Province dependent for a livelihood on the supply and working of metals and precious stones was only 94,000; and of these less than 2,000 were actually engaged in mining, the rest being managers, skilled artisans, and venders of finished products. To these we may add about 10,000 engaged in various capacities in the petroleum, coal, and stone industries.

The principal mineral products of Burma are rubies and petroleum, each of which is found in great abundance in Upper Burma.

The chief ruby mines of Burma are situated in an elevated tract on the left bank of the Irrawaddy, about sixty miles east of the river, and ninety miles north-north-west of Mandalay. Although rubies have been found at one or two other sites, mining operations have always practically been confined to the

three townships of Mogôk, Kyatpyin, and Kathè. These lie in a belt of country of irregular width at an elevation of between 4,000 and 5,500 feet above sea-level. The ruby tract proper, consisting of mines at work and those abandoned, covers an area of about 66 square miles, whilst the area in which mines are in active operation extends to 45 square miles. The value of rubies mined in 1904 was about fifteen million rupees (£1,000,000 or \$4,870,000).

The chief centres of the petroleum industry are Yenangyaung in Magwe and Yenangyat in the Pakôkku district. A new field has lately been developed by the Burma Oil Company at Singu in Myingyan. A small quantity of oil is also obtained in the Akyab and Kyaukpyu districts. The industry is almost entirely in the hands of the Burma Oil Company, which is vigorously exploiting the fields.

MANUFACTURES.

Apart from the rice mills, which employ between fifty and sixty thousand people, nearly all the manufactures of Burma are carried on in the people's homes. Of these home manufactures cotton weaving and spinning are by far the most important, supporting about a quarter of a million of people; but the list includes goldsmiths, silk weavers, mat makers, cheroot rollers, blacksmiths, potters, turners, lacquerers, and makers of felt and wooden shoes, these employments being here arranged in the order of their importance numerically.

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CHAPTER II.

THE ACQUISITION OF BURMA BY THE BRITISH

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THE FIRST BURMESE WAR, 1824-26.

The early history of Burma, so far as it can be gathered from the native records, shows that in former days several distinct races and dynasties occupied different parts of the country. The Burman dynasties of Tagaung and Pagan, Ava, Prome, and Toungoo, the Talaing kings of Pegu and Martaban, and the Shan rulers of Ava and Sagaing exercised control over a more or less extended sphere, at times succeeding in subduing the whole tract of Burma proper and overrunning the neighbouring kingdoms of Arakan, Siam, and the Shan States, and at times dwindling in power before the uprising of rival kingdoms previously subjected or the inroads of Mongols, Shans, and Chinese from beyond the border.

The earliest European connection with Burma was in 1519, when the Portuguese concluded a treaty with the King of Pegu, and established factories at Martaban and Syriam. Towards the close of the sixteenth century the Dutch obtained possession of the island of Negrais, and about the year 1612 the English East India Company had agents and factories at Syriam, Prome, and Ava. About the middle of the seventeenth century all European merchants were expelled from the country, owing to a dispute between the Burmese Governor of Pegu and the Dutch. The Dutch never returned.

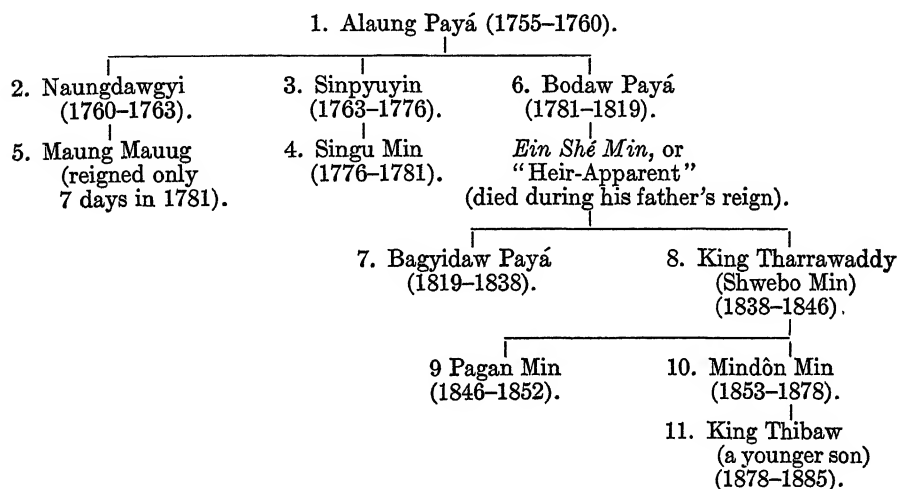
In 1688 the Burmese Governor of Syriam wrote to the English Governor of Madras, inviting British merchants to settle in Pegu and in 1698 a commercial Resident was sent to Syriam, and a factory was built there, and others at Negrais and Bassein. The French also had a settlement at Syriam.

Meanwhile the Burmese dynasty of Ava, which had obtained supremacy throughout Burma under Bayinhang, was harassed by inroads from China and Manipur, and was finally destroyed by the rebellion of the Talaing kingdom of Pegu. After some years of Talaing supremacy a new Burmese dynasty was established by Alaung Payá (or Alompra, as he is generally called in the English records), a capable and wise ruler, who brought practically the whole of what we now call Burma under his rule,

united his countrymen as they had never been united before, and finally crushed the Talaing power.

The dynasty of Alaung Payá held the Burmese throne until the final destruction of native rule in the Third Burmese War with England. It is convenient in this place to show the course of succession from Alaung Payá to King Thibaw, the last of the Burmese kings.

No law of primogeniture existed in Burma, and it will be seen from the following table that the succession to the throne passed sometimes to a brother, sometimes to a son, and so on:—



The occurrence of hostilities with the neighbouring kingdom of Ava was an event which was not unforeseen by the British Government of India as the probable consequence of the victorious career and the extravagant pretensions of the Burman State.

Animated by the reaction which suddenly elevated the Burmans from a subjugated and humiliated people into conquerors and sovereigns, the era of their ambitions may be dated from the recovery of their political independence under Alaung Payá, and their liberation from the temporary yoke of the Peguers was the prelude to their conquest of all the surrounding realms, Alaung Payá himself dying whilst engaged in the siege of Ayódyá, the capital of Siam.

Shortly after their insurrection against Pegu the Burmans became the masters of that kingdom. They next wrested the valuable districts of the Tenasserim coast from Siam. They repelled a formidable invasion from China; and by the final

annexation of Arakan, Manipur, and Assam they established themselves as masters of the territory lying between the western borders of China and the eastern borders of India. Along the greater part of this territory they threatened the open plains of India, and they only waited for a plausible pretext to extend their military triumphs to the west.

The following account of the circumstances which led to the First Burmese War, 1824-26, is taken from the historical introduction to a reprint of the Treaty of Yandaboo, presented to the House of Lords in 1853.

About 1794 parties of Mugs, driven from Arakan by the oppression of their Burmese conqueror, took refuge in the district of Chittagong in Bengal. The King of Ava sent his troops into British territory in pursuit of them, without any reference to the British Government. When advised of this, the Government sent a British force under General Erskine into Chittagong. On the General's arrival the Burmese commander made professions of friendship, and matters were easily adjusted. It had at this period become a matter of political importance to form a closer connection with the Burmese Government, in order chiefly to prevent the establishment of French influence in that country. With this view, and in the hope of obtaining some political and commercial advantages, the Governor-General, Sir John Shore, deputed Captain Symes as his Ambassador at the court of Ava. With the sole object, as afterwards became evident, of extracting all his presents, the ministers imposed, without the King's knowledge, some fictitious mandates upon the Envoy, purporting to confer certain commercial immunities on the East India Company, and authorising the residence of a British agent at Rangoon.

In pursuance of this permission, then believed to be genuine, Captain Hiram Cox was appointed British Resident at Rangoon in 1796. On his arrival at that port he experienced the most disrespectful neglect. He proceeded to the court, where, after being wheedled out of all his presents, he was treated with marked indignity. As from the conduct of the Burmese authorities towards him it became evident that no beneficial result could be expected from his mission, Captain Cox was recalled early in 1798. No satisfaction was ever demanded for the gross insults offered to the British Government through its representative, and to this forbearance subsequent insults may be ascribed.

In 1802 Lieutenant-Colonel Symes was again deputed on a mission to the court of Ava by Lord Wellesley. The chief objects of the mission were an improved treaty of friendship and

alliance, protection to commerce, satisfaction for the insolent and menacing conduct of the Governor of Arakan, the establishment of a Resident at Ava and a Consul at Rangoon. The mission experienced the most humiliating neglect and studied insult, and proved an entire failure.

The state of affairs both in Europe and in India at that time rendered an open rupture with the Burmese very undesirable. Hence it became necessary to devise some means of keeping open communications with the Burmese Government, watching its proceedings with reference especially to the French influence, and at the same time evincing to the Burmese Government the Governor-General's desire to maintain friendly relations with it. With these views the Government sanctioned the appointment of Lieutenant Canning to act as Colonel Symes's agent at Rangoon. Lieutenant Canning was to observe no ceremony, and to live as a private gentleman. On his arrival at Rangoon he received a letter from the Italian Bishop of Ava, stating that the King was ignorant of Colonel Symes's letters, and was opposed to the wishes of the British Government, the French interest being predominant. Lieutenant Canning, having, as usual, experienced disrespectful treatment, returned in a few months to Bengal.

In 1809 Captain Canning was deputed as Governor-General's Agent to Rangoon to inform the Burmese of the blockade of the French islands by the British, and of the nature of a blockade, in order that they might not expose their vessels to capture. His instructions embraced other objects of a friendly nature. He proceeded to court by royal invitation, and his mission experienced more civility than any previous one; but the reply from the ministers to the Governor-General's letter was arrogant and offensive, insinuating a demand for the giving up to Burma of Dacca and Chittagong. Captain Canning left Rangoon on his return in April, 1811.

In the early part of the same year the fugitive Mugs made a successful irruption into Arakan from Chittagong. For the purpose of satisfying the Burmese court that this attack had taken place without the knowledge of the British Government, and of adjusting some other matters, Captain Canning was, for the third time, deputed to Rangoon. His explanations were declared satisfactory. In the meantime, however, the Mugs had been expelled from Arakan, and the Burmese Governor had violated British territory in pursuit of them. Captain Canning received suitable instructions on the subject, and the matter was in a fair way of satisfactory adjustment, and the Envoy preparing to proceed to the court, when intelligence reached him of a sec-

ond invasion of Chittagong, upon which he declined going to the capital. The court of Ava perfidiously resolved to seize him and his suite, and retain them as hostages for the surrender of the Mug refugees.

The Burmese Viceroy at Rangoon made an unsuccessful attempt to obtain forcible possession of the Envoy's person, but he escaped to his ship. On hearing of this, the Government recalled him. In the interim repeated and peremptory orders came from Ava to send Captain Canning up well secured, and but for the salutary dread of two armed vessels then off Rangoon there is no doubt the order would have been promptly executed. Captain Canning, however, succeeded in returning to Calcutta, having sent the presents to court by his interpreter.

From Canning's return down to 1823 the Burmese were unremitting in their efforts to procure the surrender of the Mug refugees. Attempts on their part to form a league with the Sikhs and Mahrattas against the British had been detected. They had made themselves masters of Assam, and menaced the whole of the eastern frontier of India. Emboldened by a forbearance which they ascribed to fear, they demanded the island of Shapooree, which clearly belonged to the British. Having failed to induce the Government, either by threats or persuasion, to relinquish it, they took it by force of arms in September, 1823, killing some Indian sepoys.

The Government was disposed to consider this as a local and unauthorised occurrence, and gave the Ava Government an opportunity of rendering satisfaction by dismissing the Arakan Rajah. But the Burmese denied that the island had ever belonged to the British, declaring that any attempt to reoccupy it would lead to war. Shapooree was, however, reoccupied without opposition by Indian troops in November, 1823; but sickness compelled them to retire to Tek Naaf, a post on the adjoining mainland. The Burmese were warned that any attempt on their part to repossess Shapooree would be resisted; while, on the other hand, the Governor of Arakan was ordered by the King to retake it at all hazards. The Burmese may now be said to have commenced the war all along the eastern frontier of India, vaunting that they would conquer not only Bengal, but even England itself. Every effort to preserve peace having completely failed, and no alternative remaining, the Indian Government declared war against the Burmese on the 5th of March, 1824.

When beaten and subdued at every point, and when the Brit-

ish Commander, Sir Archibald Campbell, was deterred from marching into their capital solely by an apprehension that his doing so would occasion an entire disruption of the Burmese Government, the Burmese acceded to the Treaty of Yandaboo on the 24th of February, 1826.

Under the terms of this treaty the Burmese ceded to the British the conquered Provinces of Arakan, Yeh, Tavoy, Mergui, and Tenasserim, and agreed to pay an indemnity of one million rupees. The Treaty of Yandaboo is printed in Appendix A.

Thus closed the First Burmese War, engaged in by the British Government much against its inclinations and brought on by a series of insults and outrages on the part of the Burmese for a number of years, yet borne with the utmost patience, and which resulted to the Burmese monarch in the loss of all the territories which his ancestors had taken from the Siamese, of Arakan which had been conquered by his father, in his utter exclusion from all interest in Assam, Cachar, and Manipur, where his predecessors had been paramount, and in the loss of one million rupees.

The loss to the British in men and money during the First Burmese War was enormous. The total expenditure was about five millions sterling. The number of lives sacrificed was, considering the few who were killed in action, almost incredible. In a report by Major Alexander Tulloch, presented to both Houses of Parliament in August, 1841, the facts are thus briefly set forth: "The whole number of British troops that landed in Rangoon in the first instance was, exclusive of officers, 3,586. The number of reinforcements does not appear, but that of the deaths was 3,115, of which not more than 150 occurred in action or from wounds. Of about 150 officers, 16 were killed in action or died in consequence of their wounds, and 45 died from disease. In Arakan the loss in action was none, but of the average strength of the two regiments, amounting to 1,004 men, 595 died in the country in the course of eight months, and of those who quitted it not more than half were alive at the end of twelve months."

Although it does not fall within the province of this Report to give any details of purely military operations, the following extract from Major Snodgrass's *Narrative of the Burmese War* is of importance because it discloses the complete lack of co-ordination between the military and political authorities in India, which permitted hostilities to break out before any understanding had been reached as to the military problems involved in carrying out the objects of the Indian policy:—

“ . . . The army came unprovided with the necessary equipment for advancing either by land or water. Indeed, it was anticipated that the capture of Rangoon alone, or at least with that of the enemy's other maritime possessions, would induce the King of Ava to make overtures for peace, and to accede to the moderate demands of the Indian Government, or, at all events, that the country would afford sufficient water-transport to enable a considerable corps to proceed up the Irrawaddy towards the capital, when little doubt was entertained of a speedy submission to the terms required. . . . It was urged that they were not Burmese, but Peguers, and a conquered people, living under the tyrannical sway of a government with which they had for centuries, and often successfully, waged war; deprived of their court, and governed by despotic and mercenary chiefs, whom they obeyed from fear alone; they were represented as discontented with their present situation, and ever longing for their former independence; and, finally, that they would easily be persuaded to join the invading force, and to aid it, by every means in their power, in humbling the tyrant under whose arbitrary rule they had so long suffered every species of degradation.

“But in these calculations the well-consolidated power and judicious policy of the Government towards its conquered provinces were overlooked, and the warlike and haughty character of the nation so imperfectly known that no correct judgment could be formed of our probable reception. With an overgrown opinion of their own prowess and military genius, fostered by frequent victories over all their neighbours, and numerous unchecked conquests during half a century, was it to be wondered at that they should consider the disembarkation of six or seven thousand men upon their coast as a hopeless business, in a country, too, where every man was by profession a soldier, liable at all times to be called upon for military service at the pleasure of the sovereign? The expectation of deriving resources or assistance of any kind from a nation so constituted and living under such a form of government could no longer be indulged. Indeed, from the day the troops first landed, it was obvious that we had been deceived by erroneous accounts of the character and sentiments of the people, and that decided hostility from both Burmese and Peguers was all we had to expect.”

The Treaty of Yandaboo, which brought to an end the hostilities between Burma and England in 1826, was followed by the conclusion, in November of the same year, of a commercial treaty between the two countries. This treaty was signed on Novem-

ber 23, 1826, at Ra-ta-na-para. The treaty is reprinted in full in Appendix A.

The most important article of the treaty runs as follows: ". . . All merchants coming truly for the purpose of trade with merchandise shall be suffered to pass without hindrance or molestation. The Governments of both countries also shall permit ships with cargoes to enter ports and carry on trade, giving them the utmost protection and security; and in regard to duties there shall be none taken beside the customary duties at the landing-places of trade."

THE SECOND BURMESE WAR, 1852.

It was not until four years after the Treaty of Yandaboo had been signed that the British Government took advantage of the first article of the treaty, and deputed a Resident to the court of Ava. In 1830 Major Burney was deputed to proceed to the capital of Burma, to reside there permanently as British Resident, to open communications by post with the new British possessions of Arakan and Tenasserim, to encourage commerce, to gather useful information regarding the court of Ava, to adjust the boundary dispute between Ava and Manipur, and, lastly, to ascertain what equivalent the Burmese Government would give for the restoration of the Tenasserim Provinces, which the Court of Directors of the East India Company had decided to give up, as they appeared unlikely to repay the cost of their administration.

Major Burney arrived in Ava on April 23, 1830, but, owing to the indignities with which he was threatened, he applied on May 27 for boats to quit the capital. But the Burmese officials, having the upper hand, would neither see him nor answer his letters, nor would they allow him to have boats.

A compromise was, however, effected, and Major Burney remained at Ava until 1837. In that year there was a palace revolution, the Prince of Tharrawaddy deposing his brother Bagyidaw, and declaring himself King. The new King not only refused to receive Major Burney, but declared his intention of disregarding the Treaty of Yandaboo. In view of these facts, Major Burney left the capital, and returned to India. Lord Auckland, the Governor-General of India, at once deputed a new Resident, Colonel Benson; but King Tharrawaddy absolutely refused to receive him or to hold any communication through him with the Indian Government.

At the end of 1838 Colonel Benson quitted the capital, which

had now been changed to the city of Amarapura, leaving behind him his subordinate, Captain McLeod. The treatment of the acting Resident was in keeping with that which had marked the Burmese intercourse with his predecessors. He was put to live on a sand-bank which was under water during the rains, and all communication with the town was strictly prohibited. Captain McLeod remained at Amarapura until 1840, but as he was never publicly received, nor allowed to communicate with the town, nor permitted to remove the residency from its unhealthy and uncomfortable position, he retired in January of that year.

No one was sent to replace him, and thus the King carried out his openly avowed intention of ignoring the obligations which had been accepted by the late King under the Treaty of Yandaboo.

Very soon after his accession to the throne, King Tharrawaddy had shown symptoms of insanity, and, as time passed, he gradually became worse, committing horrible acts of cruelty in fits of ungovernable fury. One of his favourite amusements was to make any one who happened to be present kneel down, and then with his sword he would score a chess-board with gashes on the unfortunate's bare back. In 1845 he became so outrageous that his son, the Prince of Prome, put him under restraint, but Tharrawaddy regained his liberty, and the Prince fled to the Shan States. Shortly afterwards another of his sons, the Taroop-maw Prince, put him under restraint again, and he so remained until his death in 1846.

As soon as Tharrawaddy was confined, his eldest son, the Pagan Prince, assumed charge of the Government, but he did not assume the royal state until his father's death. Before this occurred, the Prince of Prome was brought in a prisoner from the Shan States, and he was then executed with all his children. On the death of his father the Pagan Prince was at once proclaimed King, and he inaugurated his reign by putting to death his brother, the Prince of Taroop-maw, and the whole of his household, to the number of about one hundred persons, male and female.

The new King, though vicious and cruel, never committed an atrocity without an object, and generally managed that his exchequer should be replenished by his victim's death. His abettors and counsellors were two Musalmans, who held appointments in the capital, to whom he allowed almost absolute power, for which they paid with money wrung from the people. Their authority lasted two years, during which 6,000 people are

supposed to have suffered death, one-half by public execution and the other by private murder.

At last the discontent became so great that the King was driven to sacrifice his tools in order to save himself. The two Musalmans, called by the Burmese MOUNG BHE and MOUNG BHIEH, were beheaded, after undergoing three days' horrible torture.

While these scenes were being enacted at Amarapura, the various Governors and Viceroys of the Provinces were following their master's example. King THARRAWADDY had, throughout his reign, treated the engagements between the British and the Burmese Governments as waste paper; and, feeling confident of support from their own Government, the Viceroys of Pegu had, ever since 1837, continued those exactions from traders which had so often provoked remonstrances from the British Government.

At last, in 1851, two more than usually outrageous cases of extortion and intimidation occurred. Two British captains of British vessels were arrested in Rangoon on frivolous charges. They were liberated on the payment of considerable sums of money, were then rearrested, subjected to further extortion, and to actual ill-treatment, and finally released. The cases were reported to the Indian Government, which, after reducing the claims for compensation from nineteen thousand rupees to nine thousand, presented the matter for the consideration of the King of Ava in the following despatch, dated November 17, 1851:—

From time to time complaints have been preferred to the Government of India by British subjects resident at, or frequenting the port of, Rangoon, of extortion and oppression exercised towards them by the Governor of that place. But the Government of India has been unwilling to believe that the provisions of the treaties of friendship and commerce which subsist between the two Governments had been disregarded by an officer of the Ava Government.

Recently, however, two cases have occurred, in which British subjects, commanding British vessels trading with Rangoon, have brought to notice ill-usage which they alleged they had received at the hands of the Governor of that place. In these cases the ill-treatment represented seemed so gross and unjustifiable that the Government of India considered it necessary to inquire carefully into the truth of the statements, and, finding the facts to be well established, deputed Captain Lambert to demand from the Governor of Rangoon reparation for the injuries and insults he had inflicted. This demand has not been complied with.

The Government of India, desirous of acting with the justice and modera-

tion by which all its acts are guided, has brought these facts under His Majesty's notice in the full conviction that he will at once condemn the conduct of his officers by whom this offence has been perpetrated, and will make to the parties who have been injured that compensation which is most justly due to them for the injuries they have received.

And as the maintenance of friendly relations, and as the mutual observance of good faith is equally the desire of the British Government and of the Court of Ava, His Majesty will doubtless recognize the wisdom of removing the Governor of Rangoon from the office he has unworthily filled, in which his misconduct has tended to sow dissension between the States and to break down the provisions of the treaty, which it is doubtless His Majesty's wish most fully to uphold.

The Government of India, confident in the belief that the Court of Ava will take a just view of the circumstances which are now placed before it, and will manifest a just sense of its own duty and interests, abstains from every expression which could seem to be at variance with a spirit of friendliness.

The Government of India looks for a prompt proof of a reciprocal feeling on the part of the Government of Ava, to be manifested in its ready compliance with the requirements of the Government of India.

If these just expectations should be disappointed, the Government of India will feel itself called upon to take such immediate measures as shall enforce the rights it possesses by virtue of existing treaties, shall effectually protect the interests of British subjects, and shall fully vindicate its own honour and power. (Papers relating to Hostilities with Burma, presented to both Houses of Parliament, June 4, 1852, p. 22.)

The course of events from the forwarding of the above despatch to the outbreak of hostilities on April 5, 1852, may be briefly summarised.

The King of Ava resorted to the very familiar plan of recalling the Governor, to whose conduct objections had been raised, without inflicting upon him any punishment or expressing any public disapproval of his acts, and sending as his successor a new Governor, who immediately adopted towards the British in Rangoon precisely the same line of conduct as had given rise to the difficulties between the two Governments.

The new Governor of Rangoon treated the British official representatives with studied insult and neglect. They were not merely denied admittance to the presence of the Governor, but were not even permitted to enter within the door of his palace. No officer was deputed to them for explanation. One official after another passed by them without notice as they were standing in the public court-yard in the heat of the sun, and, when they asked that they might be conducted to some shelter, they were told to take a place under a shed provided for the lowest classes of the people. No further notice was taken

of their presence, and after a long delay they were compelled to retire.

This treatment of the British officers was the more exasperating because the Governor had written to say that he would be most happy to receive them. Not only was the mission of these officers perfectly well known to the Governor, but their approach had been duly announced, and it is impossible, therefore, to find any excuse for the gross and deliberate affront offered to the British Government in the person of its officers conveying a communication on its behalf to the representative of the King of Ava.

Further attempts were made to clear the situation by means of negotiation, but these efforts ended in complete failure, and on March 15, 1852, an ultimatum was delivered at Amarapura.

Lord Dalhousie, Governor-General of India, in a Minute dated February 12, 1852, makes the following explanation of the policy of the Indian Government in resorting finally to war as a solution of the difficulties with the Government of Burma:—

The rejection of our demand for reparation would have justified an enhancement of the demand. But, in its desire for the maintenance of peace, the Government of India did not reject the letter of the Governor of Rangoon or enhance its demands for reparation. It raised no new difficulties, and once again renewed its exertions for reconciliation.

It demanded only an expression of the Governor's regret for the treatment to which the officers had been exposed, the payment of the original compensation, and an honourable reception for the Agent whom the Treaty of 1826 entitled us to depute.

These most just and moderate terms have been, one and all, evaded; and thus the Government of India is thrown back upon the alternative, which it formally announced to the Governor would be the result of his failing to acquiesce in our demands,—namely, the exaction of reparation by our own power.

If it be objected that the main cause of the present rupture be but a question of form, that a great Government may well afford to treat such petty slights with indifference, and that it would be wise for the Government of India to pass by unnoticed as well the offence itself as the present refusal of apology for it, rather than to be drawn by it into all the evils of a war with Burma, I desire to record my fixed conviction that the Government of India will commit an error, perilous to its own security and at variance with real humanity, if, acting on this view, it shall yield to the pretensions of the Burmese, and shall now patch up a hollow and unsubstantial peace.

Among all the nations of the East none is more arrogant in its pretensions of superiority, and none more pertinacious in its assertion of them, than the people of Burma. With them forms are the essential substance,

and the method of communication and the style of address are not words, but acts.

The conduct of the Governor of Rangoon towards the British officers on the 6th of January would have been felt as ignominious by the lowest subordinate at his durbar if he had himself been subjected to it. The ignominy inflicted on these officers, if it be not resented, will be, and must be, regarded as the humiliation of the power they serve. The insult has been persisted in to the last. The form of address in the letters of the Burmese officers has been that employed towards other inferiors, and in the conveyance of their official communications a studied disrespect, the most elaborate insolence, have been exhibited.

Were all this to be passed over, and friendly relations renewed, the ground thus gained by the Burmese would be fully taken advantage of. The oppressions and exactions to which British subjects at Rangoon have been exposed would be redoubled; the impracticable discourtesies which have been the steady policy of the Government of Ava since the conclusion of the Treaty of 1826, and which have driven away one British envoy after another from Ava, and subsequently from Rangoon (till for many years past there has been no representative of this Government in Burma at all), would be habitually practised towards the Agent who may be placed at Rangoon; and within a very brief period of time the Government of India would be reduced to the same alternative which it has now before it, of either abandoning its subjects, and acknowledging its inability to protect them, or of engaging in a war, on which it would enter with the disadvantage of having, by its previous concessions, given spirit to the exertions of the enemy, and strengthened their overweening confidence in their means of successful resistance.

The British power in India cannot safely afford to exhibit even a temporary appearance of inferiority. Whilst I should be reluctant to believe that our empire in India has no stay but the sword alone, it is vain to doubt that our hold must mainly rest upon the might of the conqueror, and must be maintained by that power. The Government of India cannot, consistently with its own safety, appear for one day in an attitude of inferiority, or hope to maintain peace and submission among the numberless princes and people embraced within the vast circuit of the empire, if for one day it gave countenance to a doubt of the absolute superiority of its arms, and of its continued resolution to assert it.

The recital I have given in the preceding paragraphs of the course of recent events will show that the original demand of the Government of India for redress was just and necessary, and that it was sought in a manner respectful to an independent nation. It will show that, a gross insult having been put upon this Government in the persons of its officers, the Government has not been eager to take offence, or perverse in refusing amends. It has shown itself sincerely desirous to open a way to reconciliation; it has practised the utmost moderation and forbearance. Notwithstanding intervening events, it has not enhanced its original demand, and it has offered the restoration of friendly relations on mild and most reasonable terms. If the rejection of these terms shall now lead to war between the States, the Government of India must be absolved, in the sight of those for whom it rules, from the re-

sponsibility of hostilities, which it cannot decline without submitting to a discredit of its power that would place in jeopardy the stability of its authority throughout the East.

I do not by any means intend to intimate that hostilities should be entered upon, even though the demands we have made should be previously conceded by the King or his officers. If, on the arrival of the force off Rangoon, the required apology shall be actually made, it may be accepted; but the former reparation demanded is not now sufficient. The expenses of the war, and the probable claims for compensation, must be provided for. If, therefore, overtures of peace should be made before the war shall actually commence, it is my opinion that we must now require:—

1. The apology previously demanded.
2. The payment of 9,000 rupees, formerly demanded for Captain Sheppard and Captain Lewis.
3. The honourable reception of the Agent at Rangoon.
4. In consideration of the expenses of the expedition, and of compensation for property, ten lacs of rupees.

In conformity with the views expressed in the above despatch, the Government of India forwarded an ultimatum to the King of Ava on February 18, 1852. About a month later a boat was sent up the Rangoon River, under a flag of truce, to ascertain if any reply had been received from the King of Ava. This boat was fired on by some shore batteries, and this act of the Burmese may be taken as the first act of hostility in the Second Burmese War.

The attitude of the Burmese local officials towards the British representatives who were trying to effect a settlement of the disputes may be gathered from the following "Order," dated January 26, 1852:—

I, MAHA THA-MIMDAN RAJAH, Governor of Bassein and its thirty-two dependent districts, an inner Minister of State of His Majesty the King of Ava, give this order.

English Chiefs,—Ye came to our country for the purpose, apparently, of giving a letter to our Monarch, but not daring to hold any communication with the Governor of Rangoon, who has been appointed to the charge of all the lower districts, you secretly stole, in a manner unbecoming the sons of a great nation, and took away the ship belonging to the King of Ava. Therefore, lest you should make your appearance at the mouth of the Bassein River and the Island of Negrais, I, who have charge of Bassein and its thirty-two dependencies, in conformity with my orders from my Royal Master, have assembled upwards of 10,000 fighting men, capable of expelling you and destroying you. They have cannon and blunderbusses, and bombs and muskets, swords and spears, gunpowder, bullets, flints, and, in fact, all the munitions and appurtenances of war, and all placed on guard around. More—

over, in all those parts of the river below Bassein in which there is any difficulty for ships to come and go there are at different points upwards of thirty armed positions, each under a different chief, and on the alert.

The man-of-war has no right to remain anchored within the Island of Negrais. If, relying on the strength of your right arm, you are anxious to fight, you should bear in mind that your vessel is a very small one. If you do not wish to fight, you must not remain at anchor inside our outpost. Even if you remain where you are without fighting or doing harm, the interests of my King require that I should attack you and drive you out, and this is to give you notice of the same.

On the British side the war commenced by a successful attack on Martaban on April 5, 1852, and hostilities continued until December of the same year, the Burmese being defeated in numerous engagements. Towards the end of the year it had become apparent that the King of Ava had no intention of acknowledging himself to be beaten, still less of signing a treaty of peace; and, as it was not the policy of the British Government to completely destroy the Burmese Kingdom as a political unit, it was decided that the Province of Pegu should be annexed to the British Empire, and that hostilities should be suspended.

In accordance with this decision, Pegu, which was already occupied by British troops, was annexed by proclamation on December 20, 1852.

THE THIRD BURMESE WAR, 1885-1886.

Three months after the annexation of Pegu a palace revolution at Amarapura resulted in the dethronement of King Pagan Min and the placing of Mindôn Min, one of his half-brothers, on the throne.

Mindôn Min was the one Burmese King of the line of Alaung Payá who exhibited any signs of a sane appreciation of the duties and responsibilities of a despotic ruler. He has been described by Dr. Nisbet as the wisest of all the Burmese monarchs, of strong commercial instincts, humane, considering his race and position, desirous of remaining on good terms with the British, although he professed no love for them, and strong enough to keep the reins of government in his own hands throughout the whole twenty-five years of his rule.

The Second Burmese War, as has been noted above, terminated without any treaty being signed; and, as this circumstance left the two countries in a very unsatisfactory relationship, and as a number of questions, chiefly of a commercial nature, required settlement, Sir Arthur Phayre, the first Chief Com-

missioner of British Burma, was despatched in 1862 to Mandalay, the new capital built by King Mindôn, for the purpose of negotiating a treaty.

This treaty, signed on November 10, 1862, provided that Burmese traders in British territory and British traders in Burmese territory should receive proper protection from each Government; that goods passing through Rangoon and declared for consumption in Burmese territory should pay the British authorities one per cent. duty on the declared value; that goods passing through Rangoon and declared for passage through Burmese territory for consumption beyond should pass through Burmese territory without bulk being broken, and free of duty; that goods passing from Burmese territory by the Irrawaddy River for Rangoon should pay one per cent. of the declared value to the Burmese government; British traders in Burmese territory and Burmese traders in British territory to be free to settle and to acquire lands for the erection of houses of business; and that neither the British nor the Burmese authorities in their respective territories should place any obstacles to persons of whatever nationality wishing to pass through. This treaty is reprinted in full in Appendix A.

In 1867 it had become evident that the provisions of the treaty of 1862 no longer sufficed to regulate the trade between British and Native Burma, and that other matters required adjustment. Another treaty was, therefore, negotiated on October 25, 1867, which, whilst explicitly declaring the treaty of 1862 to be still in force, provided for the following, amongst other, additions to it:—

ARTICLE 5. The British Government is hereby privileged to establish a Resident or Political Agent in Burmese territory, with full and final jurisdiction in all civil suits arising between registered British subjects at the capital. Civil cases between Burmese subjects and registered British subjects shall be heard and finally decided by a mixed court composed of the British Political Agent and a suitable Burmese officer of high rank. The Burmese Government reserves to itself the right of establishing a Resident or Political Agent in British territory whenever it may choose to do so.

ARTICLE 6. The British Government is further allowed the right of appointing British officials to reside at any or each of the stations in Burmese territory at which customs duties may be leviable. Such officials shall watch and inquire into all cases affecting trade in its relation to customs duty, and may purchase land and build suitable dwelling-houses at any town or station where they may be appointed to reside.

ARTICLE 7. [This article accords to the Burmese Government privileges similar to those accorded to the British Government in article 6.]

ARTICLE 8. . . . The Burmese Government shall further be allowed permission to purchase arms, ammunition, and war materials generally in British territory, subject only to the consent and approval in each case of the Chief Commissioner of British Burma and Agent to the Governor-General.

The treaty further provided for the mutual extradition of criminals, and for their detention and trial in British or in Burmese territory in certain cases. The treaty is reprinted in full in Appendix A.

The course of events from the date of the treaty of 1867 to the outbreak of the Third Burmese War in 1885 is admirably described in Chapters II. and III. of Dr. Nisbet's *Burma under British Rule—and Before*, from which the following account is taken.

From 1867 to 1879 the Government of India was continuously represented by a Resident at Mandalay, and the political and commercial arrangements between the two countries were placed upon a basis of reciprocity, which was accepted in theory, though evaded in practice, by the court of Ava. The way in which King Mindôn managed to evade the spirit of the treaties of 1862 and 1867 was ingenious. Previous to the treaty of 1867 the Burmese Government would from time to time proscribe particular articles of commerce, and declare the trade in them throughout Upper Burma to be a royal monopoly. The effect of this was to debar private traders from purchasing any of these proscribed articles direct from the producer. The producer had to sell these goods at fixed rates to the King's agents, who vended them at high profits to the other traders.

The treaty of 1867 stipulated for the royal monopolies being confined to teak timber, earth oil, and precious stones. But, while in theory the monopolies were confined to timber, petroleum, rubies, and jade, in practice all purchases of whatever nature had to be made originally from the King's brokers or agents. By these means the spirit of the treaty was broken, and its main object frustrated, without the King being directly chargeable with actual violation of its precise verbal terms.

Another question which arose at this time was that of the ceremonial to be observed by the British representative at Mandalay, when he had occasion to be received in audience by the King. When Sir Douglas Forsyth was sent upon a mission to Mandalay in 1875, he was instructed to use his own discretion as to following past precedent in his interview with King Mindôn,

but not to let such mere questions of form militate against the success of his negotiations. He accordingly complied with the past usage by divesting himself of his sword and shoes before entering the palace, and by seating himself on the floor with his feet tucked in behind him, in the posture of a suppliant before the King.

But, when his mission had been concluded, Sir Douglas Forsyth raised in his report the question of continuing to submit to a ceremonial so degrading to a British Envoy. A further opportunity of discussing this point was raised on the occasion of the visit of the Prince of Wales (now King Edward VII.) to India in 1875, when the Burmese Court sent an envoy to attend the functions in Calcutta. When the members of the Burmese Mission were received by the Viceroy, they wore head covering and shoes, and were accommodated with chairs, and they were then informed that similar courtesies would be expected from the court of Ava when it received British officials. The British Resident at Mandalay was instructed not to take off his shoes or sit on the floor when received in audience by the King. Mindôn, however, remained firm on this point of ceremonial, with the result that no British Resident was again received in audience by that monarch.

At the time of King Mindôn's death, in 1878, a number of more or less important matters had arisen between the two Governments which required settlement. There had been one or two serious outrages on British subjects in Upper Burma. A steamer bearing Her Majesty's mails and flying the British flag, had been boarded in force, and thirty of the passengers had been abducted. Judicial procedure in Upper Burma had not been carried out in conformity with the stipulations of the treaty of 1867; and the work of boundary delimitation was being seriously hampered by the action of the Burmese officials.

Although the circumstances which attended the accession of King Thibaw on the death of Mindôn, in 1878, had no direct bearing upon the treaty relations between England and Burma, they throw a light upon the general conditions prevailing in Upper Burma which adds to our understanding of the final downfall of the Kingdom of Ava.

In the Kingdom of Ava succession to the throne did not necessarily go by primogeniture, but by the exercise of royal prerogative. King Mindôn had in all about thirty sons; but, as they grew up, he delayed till his last moments to carry out the duty of appointing his successor. In this he was actuated

partly, no doubt, by fear of his own assassination, but also by the knowledge that the nomination of an Heir-apparent might lead to the outbreak of civil war.

When on his death-bed, King Mindôn sent for the Nyaungyan Prince, one of his sons, in regard to whose legitimacy no doubts had ever been expressed, for the purpose of conferring upon him the status of Heir-apparent; but in the meanwhile the mother of the Thibaw Prince, another of the King's sons, had made herself mistress of the palace, and the Nyaungyan Prince, fearing treachery, fled the country. Immediately afterwards an announcement was made that Thibaw had been named Heir-apparent.

The mother of this Prince was one of the Queens of pure royal blood, but there existed grave doubts regarding her son's paternity, and it was said that King Mindôn had often expressed his determination not to select Thibaw for his successor. On this point, however, there is much uncertainty, for some native accounts describe Thibaw as having always been a great favourite of King Mindôn.

At first the accession of King Thibaw appeared to afford reasonable hope of better relations between British and Native Burma. The new King had devoted himself with exemplary zeal to the religious studies which formed his daily task during the period of monastic life which is prescribed for every male Burman, and he had distinguished himself in the examination in Buddhist literature held by royal order at Mandalay.

But these hopes proved to be ill-founded. According to hereditary custom King Thibaw was married to one of his own half-sisters, Supayalat. Ignorant, domineering, and lustful of power, she persuaded the King that his only hope of a peaceful reign lay in killing off all his relatives on whom he could lay hands.

Having decided on this course, on the night of the 15th of February, 1879, the jail to the west of the main palace buildings was cleared for the reception of the political prisoners, and a large hole was dug in the jail precincts. The massacre was begun on that night under the superintendence of the personal followers of the King, and was continued on the following nights, the executioners being the worst among certain ruffians who had just been released from jail in order to prepare it for being the scene of this crime. Excited with drink, they killed their victims with bludgeons, and strangled with their hands those who still had strength left to utter cries. The bodies of the women and children were thrown into the pit already prepared

in the jail, while on the following night eight cartloads of the corpses of the Princes were removed from the city by the western gate, and thrown into the Irrawaddy, according to custom. The massacre was continued during the nights of the 16th and 17th, and on the 19th Mr. Shaw, the British Resident, having meanwhile received confirmation of the horrors perpetrated in the palace, intimated to the ministers that, if any further slaughter occurred, he would haul down the British flag and break off all relations with the court.

To the protest of the British Resident the King replied, through one of his ministers: "Having received and carefully perused Resident's letter, the minister intimates that the royal dominions of Burmah being governed by a distinct independent crowned head. . . . should there be a matter which will bring on a disturbance in the country, it is not proper to pay attention as to whether the action to be taken thereon will be the subject of some censure and blame, but it is proper to act only according to the interests of Church and State. For the above reasons . . . this business has been done according to custom."

After this the position of the Resident became so difficult, and the officials and the people of Mandalay adopted towards him a manner so insolent and threatening, that it was deemed prudent in October, 1879, to withdraw him from the capital.

No sooner had the British Resident quitted Mandalay than King Thibaw determined to make some sort of alliance with a European power, in order that he might introduce into his relations with England a new and uncertain element, calculated to hamper the British Government if it should desire at some future time to exert pressure on the Burmese Government. Accordingly, he despatched a mission to Europe in 1883, ostensibly with the object of gathering information relating to industrial arts and sciences, but in reality for the purpose of seeking alliances with foreign powers.

Owing to the prompt action of the British Government, this Burmese mission failed to obtain in Europe anything beyond common commercial treaties with France and other countries; but M. Jules Ferry, the Foreign Minister of France, admitted to Lord Lyons, the British Ambassador in Paris, that the Burmese had approached the French Government with proposals for a political alliance, but that the idea had been completely rejected by France.

The following extracts from a despatch addressed to the Governor-General of India in Council by Lord Randolph Churchill, Secretary of State for India, on December 31, 1885,

bringing to a close the narrative of the final overthrow of Burmese power:—

After the withdrawal of the British Mission from Mandalay the attitude of the Government of Burma grew more hostile. In November, 1879, an unprovoked attack was made by Burmese on the captain and crew of a British steamer whilst it was lying at anchor in the waters of the Upper Irrawaddy. A demand for redress was so ill received by King Thibaw that the Government of India recommended the renunciation of all treaty engagements with him. Her Majesty's Government, however, at that time considered that a crisis should not be precipitated by measures of which neither the political nor commercial effect could with certainty be estimated. Shortly after, the King sent an Envoy into British Burma, with the object of proposing new treaty relations with the Government of India. The articles of the draft instrument were found on examination to be so inadmissible, and the King's overtures so insincere and illusory, that the Envoy was not allowed by the British local authorities to proceed to Rangoon. Another outrage on a British mail steamer, which was seized and detained by officials of the Burmese Government on the pretext that a rebellion instigated by the Government of India had at that moment broken out in Upper Burma, produced a further demand for redress, which proved as unsuccessful as the former one.

The relations of the two Governments remained at a dead-lock. Fresh atrocities took place at Mandalay. Bands of armed dacoits roamed at will. Raids were made into British territory. Upper Burma became completely disorganised. In the spring of 1882 an Envoy from Mandalay arrived in India, bearing new proposals for a treaty. Notwithstanding previous occurrences, a most friendly reception was accorded to the Burmese Mission, and Your Excellency's predecessor took the utmost trouble to bring the negotiations to a successful and satisfactory issue. King Thibaw, however, suddenly recalled his Envoy, and expectations of a renewal of friendly intercourse between the two powers were again disappointed.

The court of Ava developed its policy of menace and hostility to the Government of India by the despatch of a mission to Europe, seeking alliances with foreign powers for the purpose of attaining political and commercial arrangements which could not but conflict very seriously with British interests and lead to intrigues by foreign agents at Mandalay, the initiation even of which Her Majesty's Government could not for a moment tolerate.

As long as the kingdom of Ava occupied an isolated position, the British Government could afford to submit to much provocation, but when the external policy of the Burmese court indicated designs which, if prosecuted with impunity, could only result in the establishment of preponderating foreign influence in the upper valley of the Irrawaddy, it became impossible for Her Majesty's Government any longer to view the situation without considerable anxiety.

In August last [1885] the following occurrence left Your Excellency no choice but to resort to prompt and decided action. King Thibaw, instigated in all probability by counsellors outside the Burmese Government, attempted

to impose a preposterous and ruinous fine on a British Trading Company which had for many years held forest leases in His Majesty's territories, and followed up this action by a threat of confiscation of the whole of their valuable property in default of payment. Your Excellency, desiring that British subjects in the position of this Company should have a fair and proper hearing, and should not be ruined by unjust and arbitrary measures, caused a communication to be addressed to the Burmese ministers, expressing a hope that the King would allow the matter in dispute to go before an arbitrator who should be appointed by the Viceroy of India.

Your Excellency's reasonable proposals were rejected by the ministers of King Thibaw, who in their reply questioned the right of the Viceroy to raise the subject. Thereupon, with the full approval of Her Majesty's Government, Your Excellency in Council addressed an ultimatum to His Majesty, demanding the acceptance of certain definite proposals for the settlement of existing disputes and the establishment of satisfactory relations with Ava, which was accompanied by a warning that, in the event of these proposals not being immediately accepted, your Government would take the matter into its own hands.

These proposals were: (1) that, with a view to settle the dispute immediately in question, Your Excellency in Council must insist upon an Envoy from the Government of India being received at Mandalay, with free access to the King upon the same terms as are usual at other courts; (2) that proceedings against the Bombay-Burma Corporation should be meanwhile suspended; and (3) that an English Agent should be permanently stationed at Mandalay, with a proper guard for his personal protection. The King's Government was at the same time informed that hereafter it would be required to shape its external relations in accordance with the advice of the British Government, and to give proper facilities for trade with China and elsewhere.

Your Excellency's Government judiciously made the despatch of troops to Rangoon concurrent with that of the ultimatum, with the view of convincing King Thibaw that your Government was in earnest, that any injury to British subjects or to their property would not be overlooked, and that he would be no longer allowed to indulge in undisguised hostility to the British Empire. Your proposals were treated with contempt by the King, who, simultaneously with the despatch of an evasive reply, issued an openly hostile proclamation. The time had come for terminating the deplorable state of things which had grown up at Mandalay. Had the Government of India delayed action, a situation would have been created in Upper Burma most prejudicial to the commercial and political interests of the Empire, and with which it might have been difficult hereafter to deal.

Major-General Prendergast was therefore instructed, with the approval of Her Majesty's Government, to advance upon Mandalay, and to issue a notification which, setting forth the reasons for this step, and declaring the reign of King Thibaw at an end, should proclaim that the private rights, the religion, and the national customs of the Burmese people would be scrupulously respected. The operations so effectually organised by Your Excellency's Government were carried out with much skill and complete success.

The capital was occupied within ten days. The King surrendered himself a prisoner. The immediate objects of the expedition were attained with comparatively little loss on either side. Her Majesty's Government derived special gratification on learning that the British force was welcomed by the inhabitants of the country as a deliverance from past and existing evils, and as the prelude for the establishment of British rule, for which the people, according to the reports received from the Commander of the expedition, evinced a genuine desire.

The annexation of Burma to the dominions of Her Majesty was the inevitable result of the deposition of King Thibaw. It is certain that any action short of annexation would speedily have reproduced all those evils with which the Government of India has for years endeavoured fruitlessly to cope. The arrogance and barbarity of a native court, the oppression of British subjects, the hindrance to British commerce, the intrigues of foreign nations, are forever terminated in Upper Burma. It may be anticipated that the same development of industry, wealth, and prosperity which, in spite of many difficulties, has been so marked in the adjoining British territory, will gradually be substituted for the anarchy which for so long has persecuted the subjects of the court of Ava.

Her Majesty's Government desire to leave Your Excellency a large discretion as to the precise methods by which you may think proper to reorganise the Government of Upper Burma, and Your Excellency will, in the course of time, determine the number of troops which may be necessary for the due preservation of peace, and for the suppression of bands of dacoits which still continue to infest the country. I content myself for the present with the expression of a hope that it may be possible to introduce a simple form of government, utilising in the management of local affairs the native element which is to be found at Mandalay and elsewhere to the utmost extent which may be practicable and safe. This course of procedure is, in the opinion of Her Majesty's Government, rendered all the more incumbent by the probability that the revenues of the country may not for a considerable period meet the expenses of administration.

The Third Burmese War was brought to a conclusion by the surrender of King Thibaw, and this result was obtained without any serious fighting.

On January 1, 1886, the following Proclamation was issued by Lord Dufferin, Viceroy of India:—

By command of the Queen-Empress it is hereby notified that the territories formerly governed by King Thibaw will no longer be under his rule, but have become part of Her Majesty's dominions, and will, during Her Majesty's pleasure, be administered by such officers as the Viceroy and Governor-General of India may from time to time appoint.

(Signed)

DUFFERIN.

The following account of the pacification of Upper Burma is condensed from Chapter V. of the *Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States*:—

THE PACIFICATION OF UPPER BURMA.

There were four methods possible for the re-establishment of order and government in the Kingdom of Burma after the dethronement of King Thibaw. It might have been declared a buffer State. Under this arrangement the Alaung Payá dynasty would have remained on the throne; the ruling Prince, like the Amir of Afghanistan, would have been perfectly independent in matters of internal administration, and all that the British should have required would have been the right to supervise his external relations. In fact, he would have become what King Thibaw would have remained if he had accepted the original proposals of the British Government, an autocratic though confederated sovereign. The shadowy claims of other nations, however, rendered this a contrivance of more than doubtful utility. The next alternative was that of maintaining Upper Burma as a fully protected State, with a native dynasty and native officials, but under a British Resident, who should exercise a certain control over the internal administration, as well as over its relations with foreign powers. Upper Burma would thus have assumed the status of many of the Native States in India Proper. But the character of Burmese Princes, with their lofty conceptions of superiority to all created beings, would have made it necessary to maintain such a ruler as a mere puppet; and a puppet king of the Burmese type would have proved a very expensive, troublesome, and contumacious fiction.

Moreover, there were only two Princes of the Royal House who were available. The Nyaung Ôk, who was in Bengal, was unpopular in Burma and was of a character unsatisfactory in every way. The other was the Myingun Prince, then in Pondicherry. He fulfilled all the conditions of royal descent in both father and mother, and his abilities were at any rate respectable. But the chief events of his life, while he was at large, were that he tried to kill his father, Mindôn Min, and succeeded in killing his uncle.

The only remaining alternative to annexation was to set up a grandson of King Mindôn, such as a minor son of the late Nyaung Yan Prince, with British Officers to administer the

State in his name and on his behalf, until he should come of age, perhaps fifteen years later; but it was at once apparent that this would have imposed all the trouble, anxiety, and cost of a British occupation, without securing any corresponding advantages.

Consequently, nothing but annexation remained. It was the only course which could secure the peace and prosperity of Upper

Burma and the imperial and commercial interests of Great Britain. From the 1st of March, 1886, therefore, Upper Burma was incorporated in British India by command of Her Majesty, and, with the exception of the Shan States, was constituted a scheduled district under Statute XXXIII. Victoria, Cap. 3.

For some time the efforts of the British were directed rather to check the prevailing and increasing lawlessness than to stamp it out, and in any case General Prendergast's force, which numbered about 10,500 men only, was quite inadequate to occupy a country covering 75,000 square miles. Experience had proved that it was not enough to attack and disperse the dacoit bands; if they were to be prevented from re-assembling, the affected country had to be closely occupied. It was evident therefore that large re-enforcements were necessary, but by March, 1886, the season in which extensive operations could be undertaken was nearly over. Two months of hot weather, April and May, remained. After that the rains commenced, and that was no time to undertake active operations with new troops in a country where a great part was impenetrable jungle, and where, even in the more thickly populated districts, no proper roads or bridges existed, and the numerous rivers and streams overflowed and flooded large tracts for weeks at a time. There was no regular organised enemy in the field against whom operations could be directed, and therefore there was no particular object in requiring the concentration of large masses of troops; but the country generally was overrun by armed bands.

The extension of British influence and the reduction to order of parts of districts remote from headquarters were, therefore, only gradually effected. The very suddenness of the overthrow of the Burmese King militated against the peace of the country. Bands of men ordered out for the defence of the Kingdom had hardly been raised before the King himself was deported. These bands became rebels almost as soon as they fancied themselves to be soldiers. They had assembled to fight for their King, but before they could fight there was no King left to fight for,

and their very gathering together constituted them, according to their notions, rebels, and already liable to punishment by the new Government. In addition to the bands already assembled when the news of the annexation arrived and all semblance of obedience to headquarters had disappeared, every little group of villages elected its own *bo* to protect it from its neighbours, or to attack them. The greater number acted quite independently of each other in resistance to the British. They preyed on villages which had submitted to us and on rival *bos*' villages with perfect impartiality, and, except some few, who made speedy submission, became the perpetually renewed dacoit leaders, whom it took three years to suppress. It is interesting to note that the pacification of Upper Burma, though presenting greater difficulties, occupied less than half the time devoted to the pacification of the Lower Province after the war of 1852.

The situation with which the British were confronted when annexation was determined upon is thus described in the *Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States*:—

When the local authorities beyond the reach of our earlier outposts found that they were not supported or controlled by any central authority from
 State of the Mandalay, they either commenced to rule their districts
 Country in 1886. themselves, or they were frightened off by local dacoit
 leaders or rivals, and made the best of their way to
 the nearest British station. There was naturally a good deal of competition among the upstart rulers, and each one set about strengthening his position and extending his influence as far as he could. Professional dacoits naturally formed a strong nucleus of such bands, and, when we came in contact with them, compromised the character of all the rest. The usual plan adopted was to send round orders to different villages to provide a certain number of guns and a certain number of men who were to rendezvous at a named spot. This order was generally accompanied by a demand for money. In this way in populous districts huge bands were collected in a very short time, and the villages that had refused to comply with the orders were promptly attacked, for even later it was very seldom that the dacoits attacked our troops. It often happened that one dacoit *bo* would summon a village that had supplied men or arms to another *bo*, and such incidents established a feud between the two bands. It was very rarely that two neighbouring dacoit bands were on friendly terms with each other, but this was in no sense an assistance to our troops. These were regarded at first certainly as opposition bands starting opposition *bos* in their districts. To starve one another and our troops out they exercised a complete terrorism. The village that refused to help them or the village that assisted any other band, whether British or Burmese, was burned and plundered on the first opportunity; and they maintained their authority against that of the British by exerting this terrorism on the country, rather than by fighting the troops. A band of from a

couple of hundred to perhaps 4,000 would collect with a certain object. When that was accomplished, they dispersed. If they were attacked by our troops, they almost invariably melted away. They had no intention of fighting us and never stood unless they were forced to. If they were lucky and killed one or two soldiers, their prestige increased; if they were unlucky and lost some men themselves, these victims were considered fools for not getting out of the way of the soldiers and the remainder re-assembled the next time they were summoned, not in the least degree demoralised. The villagers for long would give our troops not the very least assistance or information for a variety of reasons. At first undoubtedly they did not care to do it; as often as not they would not, because the bands opposed to us were composed of

themselves, their friends, and their relatives; and again they had no particular desire to be rid of their local leader. They knew him and they knew the lengths he would go, and many of these *bos* ruled with discretion and moderation where they were supported and not thwarted. Moreover, it was found that assistance could not with justice be accepted, even if proffered from villagers who did not live under the immediate protection, or within easy striking distance, of an established military post. Unless they were afterwards protected, punishment by the dacoits was certain to follow aid or information given to our columns.

The general procedure of a band of dacoits was to approach the village to be dacoited soon after dark. When they got close, they began to fire off their guns. Usually the villagers bolted, and then the dacoits ransacked the houses and burnt them when they left. If the dacoit fire was replied to, they

made off, unless their band was large, or they set the village on fire by throwing disks of burning oiled rope on the thatch roofs. The people then seized their valuables and made off with them, and were looted by the dacoits as they went. As a rule, dacoits did not attack villages which they found alert and awake; hence it was a very common custom for the villagers to fire off their guns in the air from time to time during the night, and, when there was any disturbance in a village at night, all the inhabitants rattled their bamboos to show that they were awake.

Every village surrounded itself with impenetrable hedges of prickly-pear or with matted lines of dry brambles and thorns which could not be rushed and were very difficult to cut a way through. Behind this hedge there often stood a sort of *miradors*, look-out posts, or crow's nests, placed at intervals all round. Any village that was thriving, or that was worth dacoiting, could be told at once by the appearance of its defences; but this was no guide in the early years of the occupation as to its character, since for a long time the most thriving villages were the headquarters of the different gangs of dacoits, and later they often supplied food to the robber bands camped in the jungle near at hand. A favourite site for a camp, when our flying columns had rendered the villages no longer safe, was in the dry bed of nullah, or in a dense expanse of *kaing* grass. In such places when a fire was kindled, they fanned it with a circular piece of wicker-work called a *ban*, in order to prevent the smoke from ascending. This was not so necessary in forest jungle.

As regards the atrocities committed by the dacoits, they were very seldom wanton. There were many instances of the most barbarous and inhumane

Atrocities committed by Dacoits. practices, but these were exceptional cases for the extortion of evidence, or to find where treasure was buried; on such occasions they spared

neither age nor sex. The cases of crucifixion, of which so much was heard, were not what we understand by the term. A man was tied to the framework to be killed occasionally, but usually he was killed before he was crucified. Any man who was killed while out dacoiting was tied up on a crucifix by the villagers, and so were thieves who had been executed and any objectionable person who met his death by violence. The body was always ripped up after death, which gave the appearance of cruelty. What torture there was, assumed the form of spread-eagling the victim in the sun, crushing the limbs between bamboos, or suspension head downwards in the stocks; and to that the villagers were accustomed for non-payment of revenue. Crucified persons were not buried, and in consequence crucifixes, old and new, occupied and unoccupied, were seen all over the country and were constantly met with, for they were usually set up in conspicuous places, at cross-roads or outside villages. But they were by no means always or indeed usually traceable to the dacoits.

The inordinate national vanity, which forms so prominent a trait in the Burmese character, leads them to the deepest admiration for a person of royal

The Leaders of Rebel Bands.

blood, and thus the survivors of the palace massacres had followers almost thrust upon them, while adventurers found it very easy to gull the population, which they did all the more easily because the strictest Court ceremonies were maintained in their bands; ministers were appointed; royal orders were issued, scratched in proper form on tapering palmyra leaves; proclamations were issued stamped with lion, or rabbit, or peacock seals; huts in which the leaders lived were called temporary palaces and the bands royal armies. If there was no gold and silver plate, then they ate off plantain leaves, for royalty alone should eat off such a leaf.

The country in which these bands were hunted down was by no means easy, and it had, broadly speaking, three different characteristics, each of which presented special difficulties. These physical features were the low-lying alluvial tracts, the sandy and, comparatively speaking, dry tracts, and the hilly and jungly tracts. The alluvial tracts, of which the country round Mandalay or Kyauksè is typical, are extensively irrigated and almost exclusively under rice crops. From February to May they are hard and dry and are traversable in any direction; for the rest of the year they are either under cultivation, or they become swamps and are only just practicable for transport animals, so that rapid movements are out of the question. Trees and patches of jungle everywhere confined the view to a few hundred yards. Except in the dry season, mounted men could not operate, and infantry lost sight and touch of the flying enemy in a very short time. It was in this sort of country that the largest dacoit bands collected, numbering in the earlier days as many as 3,000 or 4,000. The temporary auxiliaries easily

Character of the Field of Operations.

vanished, when attacked, into the numerous villages, and the nucleus of professional robbers had retreats in dense jungle, the locality of which was only learnt after repeated disappointments.

The sandy tracts are found in the country between the Panlang and the Irrawaddy and generally midway between the greater rivers—the Irrawaddy, the Chindwin, and the Mu. Inside these there were always stretches of swampy cultivation, but except for these the country was practicable all the year round. The water, however, is often brackish for miles at a stretch; the vegetation is thorny scrub jungle in bushes or patches, with no shelter for the greater part of the day; and maize and millet and palmyra palm sugar were what the bulk of the people lived on, and were the only supplies available. In such tracts the gangs seldom numbered more than 200 or 300; but one band ranged over a very wide area.

The hilly and jungly tracts were those in which the dacoits held out longest. Such were the country between Minbu and Thayetmyo and the *terai* at the foot of the Shan Hills and the Arakan and Chin Hills. Here pursuit was impossible. The tracts are narrow and tortuous and admirably adapted for ambushes. Except by the regular paths, there were hardly any means of approach; the jungle malaria was fatal to our troops; a column could only penetrate the jungle and move on. The villages are small and far between; they are generally compact and surrounded by dense impenetrable jungle. The paths were either just broad enough for a cart, or very narrow, and, where they led through jungle, were overhung with brambles and thorny creepers. A good deal of the dry grass and underwood is burned in March; but as soon as the rains commence the whole once more becomes impassable.

Unmade cart tracks were found almost everywhere. In the sandy tracts they were open all the year round, but in the alluvial districts carts could not ply from June till November. None of the roads were anything but lines cleared of tree growth. They were never made and rarely tended, and the wheels of the country carts cut ruts a foot and eighteen inches deep, and that ordinarily only on one side of the road at a time, so that no wheeled conveyances, except country carts, could go over them. Columns could never advance along cart tracks on a broader front than infantry fours and along pack tracks only in single file. It was not surprising therefore that the earlier columns were compared by the Burmese to a buffalo forcing his way through elephant grass. The reeds (and the dacoits) closed up again immediately after the passage. Unless a gang was come up with before it dispersed, it was quite impossible to do anything; and in a populous or jungly district the biggest band would completely melt away in 20 minutes. As the dacoits so rarely stood, and when attacked disappeared so quickly, columns composed entirely of infantry operated at a great disadvantage. They would have to march for five or six hours, pushing on as fast as they could and making a circuit over unfrequented paths, and in the end had to go in straight for the position, for if they halted a moment the dacoits would have vanished. To follow them up for long was impossible, for the gang spread in every direction; they were slightly clad, fresh, knew the country, and could keep out of sight in patches of jungle and villages; therefore in the second year's operations great use was made of cavalry and mounted infantry. They

could surprise the bands by their rapid movements, they could outstrip spies, and when they came upon a gang they kept them in sight and in touch so that some punishment was always inflicted and the dispersal was the more complete and alarming. It was only in the hills and in dense jungle that the mounted infantry could not operate, and it was only there that serious opposition existed after the cold weather of 1887. Even in such places they were able to effect much by the distances which they could cover.

The necessity of supplementing the work done by the troops and providing permanently for the civil administrations engaged

the attention of Sir Charles Bernard as soon as annexation was determined on.

Formation of Military Police Forces.

In February, 1886, proposals were framed and submitted to the Government of India for the enlistment of two military police levies, each to consist of 561 officers and men, and of 2,200 military police to be recruited in Northern India. In addition to these it was proposed to raise a small force of Burmese police for detective and purely police work. The two levies were speedily formed, and consisted of men who had already received military training. Both were in the Province by the beginning of July, 1886. The military police began to arrive somewhat later, and were for the most part untrained men. These had all to be drilled and disciplined at Mandalay and other headquarter stations before being sent to outposts or on active service. The local police were raised by District Officers, as occasion required and as circumstances permitted, and received such training as the local officers could supply.

As the situation and the circumstances of the Province became more thoroughly realised, and as the extent of territory under administration increased, it became evident that the numbers of the police force would have to be considerably augmented. Two fresh levies therefore were raised in the end of the year. One of these, from Northern India, was devoted to the protection of the railway line from Toungoo to Mandalay, during and after its construction. The other, which was recruited from Gurkhas and other hill-tribesmen, was sent to Bhamo for service about Mogaung. Finally, it was determined to enlist a total police force of 16,000, of which 9,000 were to be recruited from India and 7,000 from Burma, with the intention that in time the foreign and local police were each to consist of 8,000 men. The whole of the force was subjected to military drill and discipline, and was enrolled for service for three years. For each district a separate battalion was to be formed, consisting of a fixed number of for-

eign and local police, under the command of a military officer for the purposes of training and discipline, and under the orders of the local police officers for ordinary police work.

Perhaps the most important step for the permanent pacification of the Province was the disarmament of the people.

General Disarmament of the People.

Orders were issued for the disarmament of the whole population, but practically what was required was a redistribution of arms under proper safeguards. Firearms were collected and branded with distinctive marks and numbers. In the case of dacoit leaders and their followers, or of rebel villages, the surrender of a certain number of firearms was made a condition of the grant of pardon. Persons of proved loyalty were allowed to retain their arms, after they had been numbered, under the special license of the Deputy Commissioner, subject to the condition that the holders lived in a village which was defensible and possessed a fixed minimum number of arms, so as to be capable of self-protection. It was found that the possession by a village of one or two muskets only was a source of danger and a temptation to dacoits, whereas the possession by loyal householders of a moderately large supply afforded them means of self-defence. Except in special cases, such as that of foresters working in parties of some strength, in remote parts of the country, licenses to carry firearms were not granted. The licenses issued only authorised the holders to possess arms for self-protection.

Although this policy of disarmament was thus early begun, the process was a slow one; and the final form of the license to possess arms and ammunition was not determined till May, 1888, after many alterations. Licenses were granted under the Indian Arms Act of 1878, and covered only the persons and arms named in them, unless it was specially certified to cover retainers of the holder. The license is voided every 31st of March, and extends only to the particular district or place named. No one is allowed to own firearms or ammunition who does not live in a village which contains at least 50 houses and has at least nine other license-holders. The village itself must be well fenced or stockaded, so as to prevent its being rushed, and the ground without the fence is to be kept clear of jungle or cover for the space of 50 yards. Each license-holder engages to act as a special constable, and to resist dacoits whenever the village is attacked, and to pursue them when called upon by a competent authority, such as the headman of the village, or Civil, Police, or Military Officers not under the rank of a *Myoôk* or

head constable. The license-holder cannot carry his firearm beyond the boundaries of his own village, unless in the pursuit of dacoits, and, if he leaves his village for the night, has to deposit his gun with the village headman until his return. When acting under authority beyond the boundaries of his own village, the license-holder wears a uniform or badge supplied to him at cost price by the District Superintendent of Police. The gun must be produced for inspection whenever required by an officer not under the rank of a *Myóók* or head constable, or a *Jemadar* of Military Police. The amount of ammunition allowed and to be exhibited on requisition is $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of powder, 50 caps, and a proportionate quantity of bullets or buckshot, and this ammunition is procured only from the District Superintendent of Police. If the license-holder lends, loses, or in any way parts with his gun, his license and those of all other license-holders in his village are cancelled and the arms are confiscated. These licenses are liable to be withdrawn at any time at the discretion of the Government. Further, the number of licenses in each district is fixed by the Government, and cannot be increased without its sanction.

The policy adopted was thus not that of depriving loyal and courageous people of their means of protection, if they had shown themselves able and willing to use their arms in their own defence. It was a measure for depriving dacoits and outlaws of the means of obtaining arms and for concentrating in defensible positions the weapons which were allowed to remain in the hands of the people. The wisdom of the policy was abundantly proved by its results. Whenever a district was disarmed, dacoit bands either disappeared or surrendered and the people settled down to peace and order. In some places the wildness of the country or other local causes delayed the process, but everywhere eventually the result was the same, and the people by degrees grew to understand that they would be held responsible and would be punished for failure to assist the authorities in keeping the peace.

In 1887 the Military force available was about 32,000 men, with two Major-Generals Commanding Divisions and six

Final Pacification. Brigadier-Generals, in addition to the fairly drilled and disciplined Military Police. With this force it was possible to carry out vigorous and combined offensive operations with a number of small flying columns. The plan adopted was that special operations were to be undertaken against the more formidable bands of dacoits, and that the general occupation of the country was to radiate

from the already established posts. Whenever police were available, they were to relieve the troops in the occupation of the intermediate posts, with well-kept up communications between them all, and constant and systematic patrols. Outside these lines of posts the chief military operations were undertaken, and inside them the Civil Officers, supported by the troops and police, directed their attention to the settlement of the country.

This had very immediate results. At first the organised bands had been numbered by hundreds and even thousands, and in 1886 regularly organised columns went out against these. It was seldom possible to bring them to an engagement, and all that could ordinarily be done was to disperse them and drive them off. This process was now repeated with the addition that the gangs were allowed to settle nowhere. Generally speaking, it may be said that during 1886 the struggle was with large and powerful gangs that occasionally made a stand, or were so numerous that they could not all get off the ground before the British column fell on them. The sympathy of the people was then largely with them; and the Government had little authority outside its posts, or beyond the neighbourhood of its columns; while, as soon as these retired, the dacoits gathered together again.

During 1887 the large bands were broken up and their place was taken by smaller gangs. These had still a strong hold on certain villages, but many other villages had begun to submit. In these the dacoit leaders tried to maintain their influence by terrorism, plain brigandage, torture, and murder. It was a year in most districts of hardly any open fighting, of many violent crimes, of endless pursuit of ever-concealed outlaws. To say the truth, the outlaws with their means of getting early intelligence of the movement of troops and their system of terrorism maintained themselves little, if at all, reduced in numbers. But sustained action and dogged persistence in spite of disappointments had their inevitable result in the end. The leaders were one by one killed, captured, driven into isolation and flight beyond the frontier, or were forced to surrender. The gangs steadily decreased in number and strength; they received less and less accession of men, and consequently less support and protection from the villagers, as their numbers became reduced to the original nucleus of confirmed bad characters, and public feeling became more and more enlisted on the side of law and order. Within two years a great part of Upper Burma was as free from trouble as the Lower Province. Some districts, where

wide tracts of uncultivated forest, miles of water-logged country, reeking with malaria, or confused tangles of scrub-jungle and ravines, offered the dacoits safe retreats, were not reduced to order for a year or two longer, but the result was the same everywhere, and, when the armed bands were done with, there was actually much less crime in Upper than in Lower Burma.

But this was not effected without very great toil and considerable loss of life. The advance on and the taking of Mandalay were the merest trifle, little more than an object lesson in military movements and instructive manœuvres for the subsidiary departments, compared with the work of the pacification. That was a perpetual record of acts of gallantry which passed unnoticed because they were so constant; of endless marches by night and by day, through dense jungle, where paths could hardly be traced, over paths which were so deep in mud that men could hardly march over them and animals stuck fast, over stretches where no water was to be found, and nothing grew but thorn-bushes, over hills where there were no paths at all; and with all this but rarely the chance of an engagement to cheer the men, stockades found empty, villages deserted, camps evacuated, endless disappointments, and yet everywhere the probability of an ambuscade in every clump of trees, at any turn of the road, from each stream bed, line of rocks, or ravine. The difficulties were also greatly increased by the fact that by far the greater portion of the country was absolutely unknown, and that for long it was difficult to get competent guides, in some cases owing to the want of goodwill on the part of the inhabitants, but far too often because of the treatment the guides afterwards met with at the hands of the dacoits or their friends. Many were murdered, others had their ears cropped off, the more lucky only had their cattle stolen and their houses burnt. It is impossible to give a connected history of such a campaign, because it consisted of entirely disconnected incidents, and yet it called for constant individual courage and unflagging endurance, with no such cheering incidents as the charge of a Zulu impi, or the storming of a position stubbornly held. It is the fashion to call the Burman a coward, but the accusation is not fair. He would have been a fool if he had accepted battle with flintlocks and Brown Besses to oppose against case shot and machine guns. The character of the country made it impossible to launch masses armed with *da* and spear against British companies, and the only alternative to this was ambushes. The dacoit fired off his gun, and then ran to some place a couple of miles off where he could find time to load it again without being disturbed. This was

undoubtedly his proper course, but it made operations very arduous. Moreover, it is hardly an exaggeration to say that the whole population was in sympathy, in one way or another, with the dacoits, though this did not necessarily imply any personal aversion to British authority. The Burman, though he cannot be described as warlike in the ordinary sense of the term, has a traditional and deep-rooted love of desultory fighting, raiding, gang-robbery, and similar kinds of excitement. Villages had long-standing feuds with villages, and many young peasants, otherwise respectable, spent a season or two as dacoits without in any way losing their reputation with their fellow-villagers. If there were any under native rule who had scruples about engaging in dacoity pure and simple, they had always plenty of opportunity for leading a very similar mode of life as partisans of one of the numerous pretenders to the throne, one or more of whom were every now and again in open revolt against the *de facto* sovereign. As the monarchy was hereditary only in the sense of being confined to the members of the Alaung Paya family, each scion of the royal line considered himself justified in raising the banner of insurrection if he imagined that he had a fair chance of success, and he could generally plead in justification of his conduct that his successful rival on the throne had endeavoured to put him and all his near male relations to death. These various elements of anarchy no king of Burma, not even King Mindôn, who was generally loved and respected, was ever able to suppress. Sometimes a sovereign of unusual energy obtained comparative tranquillity for a short period by executing or imprisoning all his more formidable rivals, and by employing energetic leaders who could break up the larger gangs of dacoits, but such periods of tranquillity seldom lasted long, because the efforts to organise a regular army and an efficient police were always neutralised by the incapacity of the officials and the obstinate repugnance of the people to all kinds of discipline. This had been the ordinary state of the country, and in King Thibaw's time these ordinary evils were rather more pronounced than usual. In his reign the authority of the Government latterly did not extend much beyond the district of Mandalay and the immediate neighbourhood of the main routes of communication, and, even within this limited area, there was an increasing amount of anarchy and maladministration. Not a few of the Ministers were in league with the dacoit leaders, who roamed about Thibaw's dominions and occasionally, like *Bo Shwe*, disturbed the peace of the British frontier districts. All this existed before Mandalay was taken, and the situation was

aggravated by the easy and rapid success in the advance on the capital, and still more by the delay which followed in determining what was to be done with the country.

Although it was not until 1896 that the last of the dacoit leaders, Nga Cho, was captured, the general pacification of Upper Burma was completed by 1890, in which year order was finally established and the administrative system placed on a firm basis.

CHAPTER III.

THE PEOPLE OF BURMA

REFERENCES.

- The British Burma Gazetteer. Compiled by Authority. [By Horace Ralph Spearman.] Rangoon, Govt. Press, 1879-1880, 2 vols., quarto, pp. 764 and 878.
- Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States. Compiled from Official Papers by [Sir] J. George Scott, assisted by J. P. Hardiman. Rangoon, Govt. Press, 1900-1901, 5 vols., quarto, pp. 742, 583, 560, 818, and 457. *Maps, Illustrations, Glossaries.*
- Government of India. Census of 1901. Imperial Series, Vol. 12. Burma Report. By C. C. Lowis. Rangoon, Govt. Press, 1902, folio, pp. 502. *Maps, Diagrams.*

All matter printed in small type in this chapter is taken from Mr. Lowis's Report on the Census of 1901. In the Bibliographical Appendix will be found a long list of works relating to the people of Burma. For the purposes of this Report I have not found it necessary to draw to any great extent upon this literature, my object being confined to a presentation of the principal characteristics of the people of Burma, as far as they are of immediate interest to the administrator. The student of anthropology will find in the Bibliographical Appendix a sufficient guide for any further investigations he may wish to make beyond the broad classifications of this chapter.

THE INDIGENOUS RACES OF BURMA, CENSUS OF 1901.

The following are the totals of the principal indigenous races dealt with at the census of 1901. The figures are for the whole of the Province, including the Shan States and the Chin Hills.

Burmese	6,508,682	Talaings	321,898
Shans	787,087	Chins	179,292
Karens	717,859	Taungthus	168,301
Arakanese	405,143	Kachins	64,405

The above figures are, however, exclusive of certain "estimated" areas which did not fall within the general operation of the census. The total population of the "estimated" areas was only 127,011.

The habitat of the true Burmese is chiefly the valley of the Irrawaddy from just above the delta to about 20 degrees north.

Concerning the past of the Burmese race the future has still much to tell us. Philology has already breathed a certain amount of new life into the dry bones. The Burmese. The affinities of the Burmese with the Himalayan languages are unmistakable; and, though the evidence on the point is almost wholly linguistic, the theory that the Tibetan and the Burmese races have a common origin has now obtained universal acceptance. The theory till recently held has been that Tibet was the early habitat of the Burmans' forefathers. The more correct view, however, is that put forward by Professor E. Kuhn, of Munich, in his *Ueber die Herkunft und Sprache der transgangesischen Völker*; namely, that Western China, between the upper courses of the Yang-tse-kiang and the Hoang-ho, was the original home of the Indo-Chinese race, and that this region, and not Tibet, was the starting-point of the Burmans' immigrations. According to Professor Kuhn's theory the Tibeto-Burman race moved westwards from this starting-point at a comparatively recent era towards the head-waters of the Irrawaddy and the Chindwin, and there divided up into separate branches, some of which maintained their westerly course to find an ultimate resting-place in Tibet and portions of Assam, while the others either worked southwards into what is now Burma or remained to people the country in the neighbourhood of this parting of the ways. The Burmans were one of the branches which made for the southern plains. This variation of the earlier theory is, so far as I am aware, not inconsistent with the facts on which that theory rested, though it is possible that it may not find favour with those who have hitherto argued on the assumption that the Tibetan plateau was the fountain-head of the second of the prehistoric streams that swept down over the face of the land from the north. In any case, from whatever source it proceeded, we shall be safe in laying down that the Burmese race came in the first instance into the country from the north, and that its general movement has been towards the south. With this much we may rest content, solacing ourselves with the reflection that, as ethnologists in Europe have so far failed to achieve unanimity in their findings concerning the origin of races as near home and with as notable an ancestry as the peoples of the Mediterranean, it will be no great reproach if some of the Tibeto-Burman race problems remain finally unsolved for some time to come. (C. C. Lowis in the Burma Report of the Census of India, 1901.)

Judging from the great variety of names and dialects, one is

tempted at first to believe that remnants of countless tribes, torn from their original seats by wars, revolutions, and intestine feuds, wandered thitherwards, and fixed their habitations in different parts of the country now called Burma. But a closer examination of the manners and customs of the inhabitants and of their various dialects, and of the remnants of traditions still preserved among them, shows that order is deducible from the seeming chaos, and that the people of Burma may be divided into four main stocks. Round these four—Burmans, Talaing, Karen, and Shan—almost all the minor divisions can be grouped.

The Burmans are undoubtedly descended from a Tartar origin; and, as the late Dr. Mason strongly expresses it, this view is confirmed by the face of the Burman, which has his Tartar genealogy stereotyped upon it in characters that cannot be mistaken.

The Burman, in general, has a fairly well-built frame, with a strong and well-shaped bust and with legs correctly formed, but a little short. Both men and women have long hair, and are very proud of it. The men wear it tied in a knot at the top of the head, and the women in a knot at the back, the latter not disdaining to supplement their own with that of others. The men have a singular habit, at one time universally adopted, but now slowly dying out, of deeply tattooing their persons from the waist to the knees so as to give the appearance of a pair of breeches. Figures of all sorts of quadrupeds and reptiles, of ogres and other monsters, are represented, but so closely together that it is almost impossible to distinguish the design. The mode has not always been the same, but has been several times altered by the caprice of different rulers who prescribed changes and modifications.

A great deal has been written in regard to the character of the Burmans. I may refer especially to Sir George Scott's admirable volume, *The Burman: His Life and Notions*, Mr. Fielding Hall's *Soul of a People*, E. D. Cuming's *In the Shadow of the Pagoda*, V. C. Scott O'Connor's *The Silken East*, and *Burma* by Max and Bertha Ferrars.

I content myself with making the following quotations, which sufficiently indicate the general character of the Burmese. It is most interesting to observe that in Burma, as elsewhere, a marked difference is noted between the town and the country native.

"The Burmese are distinguished for that timidity and servility which is the characteristic of slaves. . . . But, if they are dastardly and abject towards the Emperor and the Mandarins,

they are in the same degree proud and overbearing towards those whom they consider beneath them either in rank or fortune. There is no contempt, oppression, or injustice they will not exercise towards their fellow-men when they can assure themselves of the protection of the Government. They are thus vile and abject in adversity, but arrogant and presumptuous in prosperity." Another characteristic of the Burmans is an incorrigible idleness. "Although the fertility and extent of their country would seem to invite them with the prospect of great riches, yet they are so indolent that they content themselves with cultivating what is absolutely necessary for their maintenance and for paying the taxes. Hence, instead of employing their time in improving their possessions, they prefer to give themselves up to an indolent repose, to spend the day in talking, smoking, and chewing betel, or else to become the satellites of some powerful Mandarin. The same hatred of labour leads to an excessive love of cunning and also to thieving, to which they are much addicted.

"Among the principal precepts inculcated to the Burmese there is one which forbids lying; but perhaps there is no law less observed than this. It would seem that it is impossible for this people to tell the truth; nay, a person who ventures to do it is called a fool, a good kind of man, but not fitted for managing his affairs. Dissimulation is the natural companion of the last-mentioned habit, and the Burmese practise it to perfection." (Father Sangermano, in *A Description of the Burmese Empire*.)

Somewhat similar is the character given to the Burmese by those who have seen them elsewhere than in, and in the neighbourhood of, the large towns. "Unlike the generality of Asiatics, the Burmese are not a fawning race. They are cheerful and singularly alive to the ridiculous, buoyant, elastic, soon recovering from personal or domestic disaster. With little feeling of patriotism, they are still attached to their houses, greatly so to their families. Free from prejudices of caste or creed, they readily fraternise with strangers, and at all times yield to the superiority of the European. Though ignorant, they are, where no mental exertion is required, inquisitive and to a certain extent eager for information; indifferent to the shedding of blood on the part of their rulers, yet not individually cruel; temperate, abstemious, and hardy, but idle, with neither fixedness of purpose nor perseverance. Discipline or any continued employment becomes most irksome to them, yet they are not devoid of a certain degree of enterprise. Great dabblers in small mercantile ventures, they

may be called (the women especially) a race of hucksters; not treacherous or habitual perverters of the truth, yet credulous and given to monstrous exaggerations; when vested with authority, arrogant and boastful; if unchecked, corrupt, oppressive, and arbitrary; not distinguished for bravery, whilst their chiefs are notorious for cowardice, for with the latter cunning in war ranks far before courage." (From a Report on the northern frontier of Pegu by Major Grant Allen, dated 18th of July, 1855, quoted on page 146 of Volume I. of the *British Burma Gazetteer* of 1880.)

It is not very difficult to reconcile the slight discrepancies which separate these two accounts of the Burmese people. Father Sangermano wrote towards the end of the eighteenth century, and his observations were practically confined to the town and neighbourhood of Rangoon. Major Grant Allen made his investigations up country and seventy years later than the Reverend Father, at a time when the Burmese had already suffered complete defeat in two wars with England.

Broadly speaking, I should say that Major Grant Allen's description is in the main applicable to the Burmese people to-day. Writing with the greatest deference for the opinion of one whose personal knowledge of the Burmese is so much greater than my own, I feel that the fascinating description of the Burmese character which is drawn with so much beauty and skill by Mr. Fielding Hall in his *Soul of a People* is so highly idealised as to afford a very unsatisfactory guide for any one seeking to approach Burma from the administrative standpoint.

It is not often that the search for the ancestral home of a widely diffused race finds its consummation in so minutely precise a statement as that made by Professor Terrien de la Couperie in regard to the origin of the Shans or Tai. A nation is by no means easily tracked to its primeval fountain-head even under the most favourable circumstances, so that, when we find it stated in set terms in the introduction to Mr. Colquhoun's *Amongst the Shans* "that the cradle of the Shan race was in the Kiulung mountains north of Sz-ch'wan and south of Shensi in China proper," we may well agree with Sir George Scott in thinking it conceivable that posterity may some day be led to modify the professor's judgment. In fact, we are in 1902 practically where we were ten years ago in respect to our acquaintance with the early beginnings of the Tai. The greater part of what we know is what Dr. Cushing has already told us, namely: that South-western China was the original home of the Shan people, or, rather, was the region where they attained to a marked separate development as a people; that it is probable that their first habitat in Burma proper was the Shweli valley,

and that from this centre they radiated at a comparatively recent date northwards, westwards, and south-eastwards through the Shan States and across Upper Burma into Assam. We have learned little in the interval save that the classification of the Tai races is a task of far greater magnitude than appeared when the last census was taken. The opening paragraphs of Chapter VI. of Volume I. of the first part of the *Upper Burma Gazetteer* will give the reader a graphic idea of the difficulties that stand in the way of a comprehensive view of the past and present of the Shan people, of the perplexing variety of names under which the Tai have been and are still known throughout the Far East, and of the misleading character of certain salient points in their history as handed down to the present generation. No doubt, when all obstacles have been overcome, it will be found that the Tai race boasts of representatives across the whole breadth of Indo-China from the Brahmaputra as far as the Gulfs of Siam and Tongking, that it numbers among its members not only the Shans proper, the Laos, and the Siamese, but also the Muongs of French Indo-China, the Hakas of Southern China, and the Li, the inhabitants of the interior of the Far Eastern island of Hainan in the China seas. No exhaustive survey of the Tai will, however, be possible till the results of British and French research have been combined.

All that is necessary here is to consider that portion of the race that has come within the scope of the recent census operations. The late Mr. Pilcher divided the Tai into the North-western, the North-eastern, the Eastern, and the Southern, and Sir George Scott has, with a few minor qualifications, adopted this division. The Siamese and the Laos are the principal representatives of the Southern division. Siamese are found in considerable numbers in the districts of Amherst, Tavoy, and Mergui in the Tenasserim division. The total at the time of the census was 31,890, while that of the Laos was 1,047. The habitat of the Eastern Shans lies between the Rangoon-Mandalay Railway and the Mèkong, and is bounded roughly on the north and south by the 22d and 20th parallels of latitude. It includes the Southern Shan States, and comprises the country of the Lü and the Hkūn of the States of Kengtūng and Kēnghūng. Linguistically, the connection between the latter two races and the Laos is very close, but apparently the racial affinity is not sufficiently near to justify the classification of the Hkūn and the Lü with the Southern Tai. The North-western Shan region is the area extending from Bhamo to Assam between the 23d and 28th parallels of latitude. It corresponds more or less with those portions of the Katha, Myitkyina, Bhamo, and Upper Chindwin districts which at one time or the other during the palmy days of the Shan dominion acknowledged the suzerainty of the *Sawbwa* of Mogaung. Of the many minor States that went to make up this dominant principality, only two, Thaungthut and Sinkaling-Hkamti, have retained any relic of their former autonomy. The racial difference between this people to the west of the Irrawaddy and the Shans of the east is marked by divergences of dress and dialect. The North-western Shans talk what Dr. Grierson has called Northern Burmese Shan, a tongue closely related to Hkamti Shan. It extends, with minor variations, into Assam, and is represented in its purest and most archaic form in the now obsolete Ahom of that Province. In the fashion of their clothing the North-western

Shans have assimilated themselves to the Burmans, in the midst of whom they live. Mr. Pilcher's North-eastern Shans are the Chinese Shans, or, as they are called by the Burmans, the *Shan-Tayôks*, who are found where Upper Burma and the Northern Shan States border on China. Sir George Scott is of opinion that with the *Shan-Tayôks* should be classified for ethnological purposes the Shans of the Northern Shan States, whose dialect differs more from that of the Southern Shan States than it does from the tongue of the Chinese Shans. These latter, we learn, have very little that is Chinese in their composition. We are not, of course, here concerned with linguistic considerations, but Sir George Scott looks to more than dialectic differences. Though the turban worn by the Chinese Shan females is peculiar to the *Shan-Tayôks* proper, the divergences in dress between the Hsenwi and the Chinese Shan are not radical. But it is mainly on historical grounds that the compiler of the *Upper Burma Gazetteer* has decided to classify the Northern Shan States Tai with the *Shan-Tayôks*. It remains to be seen whether anthropometry confirms this view.

The origin of the word "Shan" is a point which has not yet been finally settled. Sir George Scott says: "Whence the name Shan came is an unsolved riddle. We have seen that the Burmese almost certainly first knew the Tai as Tarôks or Tarets. It is possible that when afterwards they heard of the 'Han Yên,' the Chinese name for themselves, they transferred 'Han' into Shan and made a further ethnological error. . . . The name Siam is no help, for whether it is a barbarous Anglicism derived from the Portuguese or Italian word *Sciam*, or is derived from the Malay *Sayam*, which means brown, it can hardly be said to be a national word."

The last decade has seen a very marked decline in the cult of the Karen. In the early eighties the Karen, after a number of years of neglect, began

The Karens. to bulk large amid the non-Burmese elements of the population of the Province, and attracted perhaps a trifle more than his fair share of attention. At that time comparatively little was known of the Shan, the Northern Chin, and the Kachin. The Talaing had lost much of his identity, and was to the ordinary observer barely distinguishable from his Burman neighbour. The wild tribes of the Arakan Yomas were only to be studied in their own remote mountain fastnesses. The Karen, on the other hand, was to the fore, not less along the Eastern frontier than in the delta of the Irrawaddy. His dress, his form of speech, his manners and customs, and his extraordinarily receptive attitude towards the truths of Christianity singled him out as an accessible and profitable field for the labours alike of the ethnologist and the minister of religion, while his undoubted loyalty and his prowess as a fighter drew the official eye upon him. The missionaries have retained their hold on the Karen with unflagging zeal, but the interest of the student of manners and customs has shifted gradually northwards into fresh realms of research. Thus it is that, whereas prior to 1887 Messrs. Mason and Smeaton and Colonels MacMahon and Spearman had all written freely on the subject of the Karens, almost the only important contribution to our knowledge of the people that has been vouchsafed since then is that which Sir George Scott summarises in that portion of the ethnology chapter of the *Upper Burma Gazetteer* which relates to the Karens

of Karenni and Upper Burma. Dr. Grierson has, on linguistic grounds, placed the speech of the Karens in the Siamese-Chinese sub-family, and, though it appears to me doubtful whether Dr. Mason is justified in identifying the river of running sand which the primeval ancestors of the race are said to have crossed with the sand drifts of the desert of Gobi in Central Asia, there can be no doubt that the original home of the Karens must have been, if not in, at any rate in close proximity to, China. More than this it seems impossible to say. The Karens stand ethnically isolated in the midst of representatives of the three great Indo-Chinese immigration waves, and no increase to our knowledge of the Môn-Annam, the Tibeto-Burman, and the Tai races serves to help us in the solution of the problem of their origin.

The Karen country lies along the whole eastern frontier of Lower Burma from Mergui to Toungoo, in portions of the delta of the Irrawaddy, in the south-west corner of the Southern Shan States, and in the feudatory States of Karenni. The three main divisions of the Karens—the Sgau, the Pwo, and the Bghai—are by this time well known. The well-defined linguistic differences that separate them one from the other do not here concern us. What is more important ethnographically is the fact that, as Mr. Smeaton tells us, “although there is perfect cordiality and freedom of intercourse between them, intermarriage is not frequent.” This shows that there is no immediate prospect of the distinction becoming obliterated. The two first divisions are confined for the most part to Lower Burma; the Bghai preponderate in Karenni and the Upper Province. There are various sub-dialects of the Pwo and Sgau, but, so far as is at present known, the variations are not important, and, apart from these differences of speech the only distinction between one clan and another seems to be in the dress worn: here a white blouse without stripes, but with a narrow border of embroidery at the bottom which varies from village to village; there a white blouse with red perpendicular lines; elsewhere white trousers with radiating red lines and the like,—a method of discrimination that has led Sir George Scott to compare the list of clans to a “history of tartans.” At some later date it may be possible to deal as fully and systematically with the Pwo and Sgau Karens as the compiler of the *Upper Burma Gazetteer* has dealt with the Bghai, though the task will be a difficult one, inasmuch as the introduction of Christianity has had a tendency to sweep away the more minute ethnographical distinctions. Till then we must be content to ignore the minor tribal subdivisions of the lower Burma Karens, and recognise only the two main ethnical divisions, the Sgau and the Pwo. At the census the enumerators dealt with 86,434 admittedly Sgau and 174,070 admittedly Pwo Karens, 457,355 others being returned as “Karen” with the tribe unspecified.

Less than one hundred and twenty years ago there was a Kingdom of Arakan, independent of that of Pagan, and the separation of the Burmese

The Arakanese. and Arakanese people dates back to before the beginnings of history. We have what is really very strong linguistic proof, however, of the fact that the Arakanese are a branch of the Burmese race, though how long it is since they were separated from the original stem is very doubtful. Apart from language, moreover, the character, features, and physique of the two stocks proclaim a close ethnical affinity.

Save for a few Indian usages assimilated from his Chittagonian neighbours and a trifle of Aryan ballast acquired from the same source, the Magh or Arakanese is, to all intents and purposes, a Burman, but a Burman, be it said, bereft of much of his charm. The Arakan division, which extends down the western flank of the Province from the borders of Chittagong almost as far as Cape Negrais, is more or less conterminous with the ancient Kingdom of Arakan, and is the home of the present-day Arakanese. A total of 405,143 persons returned themselves as Arakanese in 1901. In 1891 the race numbered 354,319 representatives.

A total of 321,898 persons returned themselves as Talaings in 1901. They are the remnant of the Peguan race, which for long strove with the Burmans for the ascendancy in what is now Burma. It is difficult

The Talaings. to realise now that less than a century and a half ago the Peguans, who now number about the total of a fair-sized district, were masters of the country from the Gulf of Martaban to far to the north of Mandalay, and capable of putting an army of sixty thousand men into the field. Such was, however, the case, and it is not too much to say that, but for the resolution and skill of an obscure *shikari* (Alaung Payá) from the jungles of Shwebo, Burma might well have become the Kingdom of the Môn, and Talaing now the prevailing tongue in the country from the borders of Assam to the Malacca frontier. At present the confessedly Talaing population of the Province is practically confined to the Tenasserim and Pegu divisions of Lower Burma.

The Talaings are, historically, the most important representatives in Burma of the Môn-Annam race. It is now recognised as highly probable that the ancestors of the Môn-Annams formed the first of the Indo-Chinese waves that swept over the south-eastern portion of the continent of Asia, displacing the even earlier aborigines, concerning whom little definite is known, but who, there is reason to believe, were related to the ancestors of the Munda race which subsequently peopled a considerable portion of Central India, and possibly of some of the tribes which are now found on the Australian continent. It is impossible now to do more than indicate generally what the regions inhabited by the Môn-Annam people were, but, judging from the extent of the area in which they have left unmistakable deposits of their speech,—an area stretching from the Khassia Hills in Assam, to beyond the Gulf of Siam,—they must have been a populous and wide-spread nation. Here they are mainly interesting from a philological point of view, for, save in the case of the Talaings, it is outside Burma that one must look for anything in the shape of relics of their political greatness.

That collection of hill tribes which is known generically as the Chin race inhabits the highlands to the west of Burma that run north and south from

The Chins. the 16th to the 26th degree of latitude, *i.e.*, from Cape Negrais to the mountains that form the western boundary of the Chindwin valley in the Upper Chindwin district. Though of enormous length, their territory is nowhere of any considerable breadth, dwindling down in the Arakan Yoma region to quite a narrow strip of upland. It is on the whole very thinly populated. The Chins are closely related to the hill tribes of Eastern Bengal, and the conjecture that all are of Tibeto-Burman stock appears eminently reasonable. There seems every reason to believe

that after the ancestors of the Burmans had passed from their earlier seats on the head-waters of the Irrawaddy into the extreme north of the Province, and before any material change had come over their ancient form of speech, a portion of the race separated itself from the main body, penetrated down the valley of the Chindwin, took up its abode in the hills to the west of the river, and from thence spread southwards and westwards into Lushai land and what are now known as the Arakan Yomas. The descendants of the side swarm in Burma are the Chins. Mr. Taw Sein Ko (Government Archæologist of Burma) is of opinion that some of the Chin customs in regard to slavery, inheritance, marriage, and the like, give a very fairly accurate picture of what the corresponding Burmans' usages must have been in the far-off past before Buddhism spread, humanising and beneficent, over the country, and it seems probable that of all the non-Burman races that have found a home in the Province they have the closest ethnical connection with the Burmese.

Roughly speaking, there are three main geographical divisions of the Chins: the Northern Chins, whose seats run more or less parallel with the Chindwin almost as far south as its confluence with the Irrawaddy; the Central Chins, who occupy the Northern Arakan Hill Tracts and the Pakôkku Chin Hills, and are known under various names, such as Mros, Kamis, Chinbôns, Chinbôks, and Chinmes; and the Southern Chins, the comparatively insignificant remnant who tail away towards the Irrawaddy delta. There seems to be no doubt that they were all originally of the same stock, but for some reason or other the Central Chins appear to have been more exposed to Lushai influences on the west and to Burman influences on the east than their brethren to the north and south, so that some of the Arakanese tribes appear of late to have been regarded hardly as Chins at all. In the rugged mountain chains inhabited by the different sections of the race language is no sound test of affinity, and it must be admitted that our knowledge of the Chins in the north-west of Lower Burma is by no means as clear as it should be.

If the story told by the Taungthus of their origin is correct, they must be of Talaing descent. In 1057 A.D. Anòrat'a or Nawra'hta, King of Pagan,

The Taungthus. is said to have invaded Thatôn and to have carried thence captive to Pagan the King of Thatôn, Manuha, his wives and children, and certain Buddhist scriptures, copies of which had been refused him by Manuha. The Taungthus claim to be the descendants of the remainder of King Manuha's subjects who, after the seizure of their capital and the deportation of their king, migrated north and founded a new Thatôn, (the existing State of Hsatung) in the Shan States. Their legend has it that Manuha was a Taungthu. History relates, however, that the dominant race in the country to the north of the Gulf of Martaban in the eleventh century was that of the Talaings, so that, if the Taungthus were members of that ruling race, they, too, must have Môn blood in their veins. Linguistically, they show no traces of a Môn origin. They are believed to have Shan elements in their composition. The men, as a rule, clothe themselves like Shans; on the other hand, the women wear a dress resembling that of the Karens. Their tongue is a mixture of Karen and Burmese ele-

ments, and in many ways they seem more closely allied to the Karens than to any other of the peoples of Burma. Though they repudiate any relationship with the Taungthus, the Taungyos, whose habitat in the western part of the Southern Shan States is much the same as the Taungthus, are probably closely connected with the latter race. The chief difference between the two appears to lie in the colour of the smock worn by the women. The Taungthu ladies wear black, the Taungyos affect red. They are classified together in the ethnology chapter of the *Upper Burma Gazetteer*.

From a numerical point of view the most important of the races inhabiting that portion of Upper Burma which lies north of twenty-four degrees north latitude and east of longitude ninety-six degrees is that of the Kachins. The Chingpaw or Kachins. It is strongly represented south of this area also, but it is only above the parallel of latitude indicated that it forms the bulk of the population. Fifty years ago, we are told, the southern limit of the Kachins was a matter of two hundred miles further north than it is now. Since then the race has been drifting steadily southward, a vast aggregate of small independent clans united by no common Government, but all obeying a common impulse to move outwards from their original seats along the line of least resistance.

The most recent philological inquiries show that it is probable that the progenitors of the Kachins were the Indo-Chinese race who, before the beginnings of history, but after the Môn-Annam wave had covered Indo-China, forsook their home in Western China to pour over the region where Tibet, Assam, Burma, and China converge, and that the Chingpaw were the residue left round the head-waters of the Irrawaddy and the Chindwin after those branches which were destined to become the Tibetans, the Nagas, the Burmans, and the Kuki Chins had filtered away westwards and southwards. In these remote uplands they appear to have been content to remain till a comparatively recent date, when pressure from above, over-population, or some obscure migratory instinct, began to drive them slowly but surely southwards. In the north of the Province they have been brought up by the opposing front of British domination, and the stream, instead of flowing down the hill ranges of Burma, has been diverted eastwards, and, skirting the edge of the Province, shows signs of emptying itself down the other great waterways of Indo-China. Whatever the ultimate trend of their wanderings may be, the Kachins are now with us, on this side of, as well as upon and beyond, our marches, and will long be a force to be reckoned with by our frontier administrators, for they are a pugnacious, vindictive, stiff-necked generation, and, when beyond our administrative border, are still apt to be turbulent and unreasonable. Mr. George's monograph on the Kachins, published as an appendix to the 1891 Census Report, is still our main source of information regarding the customs and practices of this people. It forms a substantial portion of the article on the Kachin Hills and the Chingpaw in the *Upper Burma Gazetteer*. There were 64,405 Kachins enumerated at the Census. Had the inhabitants of the estimated areas of Upper Burma been shown on the schedules, this total would probably have been more than doubled.

The divisions of the Chingpaw are numerous and varied, and must be kept apart if confusion is to be avoided. The classification of the race into

Khakhus and Chingpaws is, roughly speaking, geographical. The Khakhus are the up-river men, the Chingpaw the Southerners. There is a further political division into Kamsa, or chief-ruled, and Kumlao, or democratic Kachins, but neither the democrats nor their *duwa*-ruled congeners are peculiar to either of the geographical areas. The most obvious Kachin units are the clan and the tribe. Of tribes there are five—the Marips, the Lahtawngs, the Lepais, the 'Nkhums, and the Marans—which can be traced by legend back to a single progenitor, and are looked upon as parent tribes. They are distributed all over the Kachin country, and are represented indiscriminately among the “head-water” Khakhus and the Chingpaw proper. The sub-tribes of these parent tribes are very numerous. The *Upper Burma Gazetteer* mentions fifteen subdivisions of the Marips, eighteen of the Lahtawngs, seventeen of the Lepais, eight of the 'Nkhums, and four of the Marans. The Lepais are the most numerous and the most influential, at the same time they are, or at any rate have been, the most impatient of control. The Marips have been uniformly well disposed towards the British, and it is only their Sana sub-tribe that has spoilt the Lahtawngs' record for good behaviour.

THE NON-INDIGENOUS RACES OF BURMA, CENSUS OF 1901.

The following abstract of Subsidiary Table No. 2 B of Volume 12 of the Census of India, 1901, shows the relative proportion of indigenous and non-indigenous races in the whole Province of Burma. The table is reprinted in full in Appendix B of this volume.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO PLACE OF BIRTH, 1901.

DISTRICT.	PROPORTION PER 10,000 BORN IN			
	Burma.	India.	Asia outside India.	Other Continents.
Upper Burma, Wet	9,780	125	94	1
Upper Burma, Dry	9,910	76	10	4
Lower Burma, Littoral	9,350	592	56	2
Lower Burma, Sub-deltaic	9,817	159	21	3
Rangoon City	4,485	5,012	382	117
Mandalay City	9,229	653	50	68
BURMA, WHOLE	9,542	401	51	6

In the above table “Upper Burma, Wet,” includes the districts of Bhamo, Myitkyina, Katha, Ruby Mines, Upper Chind-

win, Northern Shan States, Southern Shan States, and Chin Hills; "Upper Burma, Dry," includes Pakòkku, Minbu, Magwe, Mandalay, except the city, Shwebo, Sagaing, Lower Chindwin, Kyaukse, Meiktila, Yamèthin, Myingyan; "Lower Burma, Littoral," includes Akyab, Northern Arakan, Kyaukpyu, Sandoway, Hanthawaddy, Pegu, Bassein, Myaungmya, Thòngwa,* Salween, Thatòn, Amherst, Tavoy, Mergui; "Lower Burma, Sub-deltaic," includes Tharrawaddy, Prome, Henzada, Toun-goo, Thayetmyo.

If it is desired to obtain a comprehensive view of the relative indebtedness of the different districts of the Province to foreign countries for their population, reference should be made to Table I., Appendix B, which indicates how many people in each ten thousand of the population of each district were born within the limits of the Province, and how many outside those limits, whether in India or elsewhere. Rangoon naturally shows the highest proportion of Indian immigrants. A trifle over half its inhabitants are foreigners of this class. Akyab has the next highest figure, 1,531 Indians (for the most part Bengalis) in each 10,000 of its population. Hanthawaddy has 903 and Amherst 850 out of a similar total. The districts with the largest proportions of inhabitants born in Asia beyond India are Myitkyina and Bhamo (638 and 524, respectively, in each 10,000 of the population). These Asian immigrants are from China and the northern regions beyond the administrative border. Next to these two districts, in point of numbers, come the Ruby Mines, and then follows Rangoon, with 382 non-Indian Asians in every 10,000 citizens. These are presumably mostly Chinamen. Malays, Siamese, and Chinese form the bulk of the 349 Asian-born foreigners who figure in every 10,000 of the Mergui district. Elsewhere, except in the case of the Northern Shan States and Amherst, the proportion of persons born in Asia beyond India is less than 1 per cent. of the total population. The column in Table I., Appendix B, headed "Born in other Continents," may be said practically to indicate the distribution of the European population over the Province, and the fact that, after Rangoon and Mandalay City the districts showing the highest ratios per 10,000 of the population are Shwebo (26) and Thayetmyo (13) is significant of the share borne by British troops in the total European population of the Province. The mercantile community of Moulmein places Amherst next in order of strength, but after Amherst come the military districts of Bhamo and Meiktila. In the Province, as a whole, 458 persons in every 10,000, that is to say 4.5 per cent. of the total population entered in the schedules on the 1st March, 1901, claimed countries other than Burma as their birth-place. In 1891 the number of foreign-born in each 10,000 of the population was 429. The difference (29) is no real measure, however, of the growth of the foreign population during the decade, for in 1891 the Chin Hills were not at all, and the Shan States only partially, represented in the returns.

* The name of this district has recently been changed to Ma-ubin.

RELIGIOUS CLASSIFICATION OF THE POPULATION OF
BURMA, CENSUS OF 1901.

The following table shows the population of the Province of Burma (exclusive of 127,011 persons in the "estimated areas") classified according to their religious beliefs, at the census of 1901.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO RELIGIONS, 1901.

Religion.	Number.	Proportion per 10,000 of the population.
Buddhists	9,184,121	8,862.
Animists	399,390	385.
Musalman	339,446	328.
Hindus	285,484	276.
Christians	147,525	142.
Jains	93	7.
Jews	685	
Parsis	245	
Sikhs	6,596	
Others	28	
TOTAL	10,363,613	10,000.

The distribution of religious beliefs throughout the various districts of the Province is set forth in Table II., Appendix B.

To attempt any extended account of the religions of Burma would be out of place in a Report of this character, and I confine myself, therefore, to a brief survey of Burmese Buddhism, and Animism, or Nat-worship, in so far as they have some bearing upon the administration of the Province. A full treatment of Burmese Buddhism and Nat-worship will be found in the various works under the heading "Religion and its Semblances," in the Bibliographical Appendix to this volume. The following paragraphs are taken from Chapter X. of the *Upper Burma Gazetteer* and from the Census Reports of 1891 and 1901.

BURMESE BUDDHISM IN ITS RELATION TO THE STATE.

The nominal religion of nine-tenths of the population of Upper Burma is Buddhism. It is the fashion nowadays to say that Buddhism is not a religion at all, but a system of philosophy

or a code of morality. Since, however, a system of philosophy hardly satisfies the hopes and fears of human nature, it is not surprising to find that animistic religion prevails side by side with Buddhism, and not only has a great hold on the people, but was formerly recognised by the Burmese court. Before treating of Animism, or Nat-worship, the indisputable influence of the Buddhist monks and their attitude after the annexation merit some notice, since they exhibit Buddhism in its attitude towards the administration of the country.

The Buddhist monks had very considerable influence under the Burmese Government. The highest rank was given to them for the first few days after they had passed the *Patamabyan* examination, held annually in June at the foot of Mandalay Hill. Valuable rewards usually accompanied this temporary rank. It was an axiom that no monk could utter a falsehood, and his word, therefore, was universally respected and accepted as true. He had access to the King and to his ministers at all times, and those of the higher grades received specially stamped leaves to enable them to correspond with the court. They could and did exercise their influence in various ways. Sometimes a person ordered out for execution obtained his life and a pardon on their intercession. They were occasionally the only check on the tyranny and extortion of powerful officials. They obtained remission of taxes for the people in times of scarcity and disaster, or temporary relief when there was a local failure of crops. Very often it was only through the monks that men imprisoned for offences which no one remembered, for a term which had never been fixed, could obtain release. Thus under the Burmese Government the *pôngyi*, or monk, who theoretically had nothing to do with politics or with the affairs of this world, was really a political power,—the only permanent force in a system where office was liable to be as transient and evanescent as the hues of the rainbow or the tints of the dying dolphin.

The *pôngyi* could report on the conduct of officials, criticise their methods of government, have them removed or transferred, and offer suggestions for the amelioration of the condition of the people. Thus the *pôngyi* was a power in the Government of the country,—a power constituted and fostered so as to place a salutary check on the tyranny and oppression of the officials, on the one hand, and to reconcile the people to the existing form of government, on the other. It was in tacit recognition of such services that the *pôngyi* received from the State a monthly subsistence allowance, usually in the form of rice, but sometimes in

money. In addition to this the monk's relatives were exempted from taxation, and he had also the privilege of being amenable to the jurisdiction of the ecclesiastical courts only, in all matters, even in those in which laymen were parties in the case.

The Burmese monastery was a sanctuary, and offered a safe asylum to all offenders against law and justice, provided they assumed the yellow robe of the monk. With such privileges accorded to the monks one can quite believe the estimate made by Mr. Taw Sein Ko, the Government Archæologist of Burma, that under Burmese rule three per cent. of the population of Upper Burma, including the Cis-Salween Shan States, were *pôngyis*, and that in Mandalay itself there were 13,227 members of the order, or about eight per cent. of the total population of the city.

So dominant a power were the monks twenty years ago that when, with the final annexation of Burma to the British Empire, the old order of things was changed and the priestly prestige was threatened by the introduction of a new system of government in which no place was provided for the monkish intermediary, there were few more pertinacious and dogged opponents to the British rule in the new territory than the wearers of the yellow robe. Nor was it only in Upper Burma that the flame of revolt was fanned by the priesthood. In Tavoy, Tharrawaddy, and Sandoway, districts of the Lower Province, the *pôngyis* fomented disaffection in the early post-annexation days.

In the Report on the 1901 Census of Burma, Mr. C. C. Lewis, Superintendent of Census Operations, says:—

I should be the last to deny that, as a rule, the Burman ecclesiastic is the upright, clean-living member of society he is said to be; what I do maintain is that, when he falls below the high level he usually maintains, he but seldom scruples to use to the very uttermost his very great powers for mischief. The latter days of early British dominion were days of anger, hatred and malice, and it is not to be wondered at that the heart of the Church militant burnt within it. We have seen the result. I think it may safely be said that, but for the monks, the pacification of the country would have been completed far earlier than was actually the case. Even as late as in 1897 a *pôngyi* was able to collect a handful of fanatical laymen around him, and lead them to a hare-brained attack on the fort at Mandalay. All this active participation in things temporal is, as Sir George Scott points out, as little in keeping with the frigid precepts of the Great Law Giver as it would be with the pacific teachings of the Sermon on the Mount, and would not for a moment be countenanced by the laity but for the fact—now largely recognised—that the

Buddhism of the people, whose spiritual guides the *pônggyis* are, is of the lips only, and that inwardly in their hearts the bulk of them are still swayed by the ingrained tendencies of their Shamanistic forefathers, in a word are, at bottom, animists, pure and simple.

The explanation of the inconsistency between the Buddhist theory and the actions of the monks in interfering in affairs of government is to be found in the fact that Buddhism as the religion of the people is merely the outward label. The more powerful faith is that of Shamanism, which was the general belief of the people of Burma before their conversion to Buddhism.

The term "Shamanism" is said to be derived from the Chinese "Shaman," which is the Sanskrit *S'ramana* in a Chinese form.

S'ramana means "one in whom all passions have been calmed." Another and more plausible derivation is given by Yule, who, following

Shamanism, Nat-worship, Animism. Schmidt, derives it from a Tungusic word, "Shaman," which means a wizard. The difference between Shamanism and Taoism is very slight. Taoism, the belief of the great majority of the Chinese nation, is the worship of the powers of nature and of ancestors. It is the basis of all Chinese beliefs, on to which Buddhism and Confucianism have been grafted. Nat-worship has in Burma no regular priesthood, but necromancers and soothsayers for their own ends profess power to cope with the spirits of evil. As we have seen before, even Buddhists perform its rites in addition to the requirements of the Buddhist creed. There is no settled ritual, for each tribe has its own ceremonies and each clan possesses its own *nat*. Animistic worship was undoubtedly, if not the most ancient, at least the prevailing religion all the world over. In Syria it was the worship of Baal and Astarte, in Egypt of Isis and Osiris. In Bengal it still exists, and human sacrifices were made up till comparatively recent times by the wild tribes of the Santal Pergunas. The religion of the Aztecs in Mexico probably belonged to this class of creeds. In Burma it is gradually losing ground; and, as communications are improved, and the wild tribes become tame, the number of those who return themselves as Nat-worshippers will decrease. They will still remain Nat-worshippers, but will call themselves Buddhists, because they have sometimes attended pagoda festivals and conform outwardly to Buddhist rites.

Bishop Bigandet, who worked as a missionary amongst the Burmese for more than fifty years, expressed the following opin-

ion to Mr. Eales, the Provincial Superintendent of Census Operations, in 1891:—

The Buddhism of the people forms little or no part of their daily life. The hold that Buddhism has is the hold that a cold, somewhat cynical theosophical system has over the imagination and sentiments of the better educated amongst the people. This hold, and the influence the *póngyis* exert, is created and strengthened by political and chiefly social ties. Every boy must go to a monastic school and wear the yellow robe. He thus becomes “free” of the faith, and is early taught to look favourably on its professors, but in his every-day life, from the day of his birth to his marriage, and even when he lies on his death-bed, all the rites and forms that he observes are to be traced to animistic and not to Buddhist sources. If calamity overtakes him, he considers it to be the work of his *nats*, and, when he wishes to commence any important undertaking, he propitiates these *nats*, who are the direct representatives of the old animistic worship. Even the *póngyis* themselves are often directly influenced by the strong under-current of animistic religion, which underlies their faith in Buddhism.

THE POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS, CENSUS OF 1901.

The following table shows the classification of the population of Burma, excluding “estimated areas” at the census of 1901:

1. Administration	149,881
2. Defence (Army, Navy, Marine)	33,937
3. In the Service of Foreign States	8,478
4. Pastoral and Cattle Occupations	97,182
5. Agriculture	6,947,945
6. Personal Services	104,251
7. Preparation and Supply of Food, Drink, etc.	986,700
8. Supply of Light, Fuel, and Forage	33,211
9. Occupations connected with Building	60,706
10. Manufacturers of Land and Water Transport	14,019
11. Supplementary Requirements	41,881
12. Textile Fabrics and Dress	419,007
13. Metals and Precious Stones	94,723
14. Glass, Earthen and Stone Ware	34,289
15. Wood-work, Cane-work, Mats	214,633
16. Drugs, Gums, Dyes	13,692
17. Leather	10,223
18. Commerce	230,561
19. Transport and Storage	219,394
20. Professions	262,273
21. Sport	1,774
22. Unskilled Labour not Agricultural	435,583
23. Indefinite and Disreputable Occupations	5,429
24. Independent of Occupation	41,522
Grand Total	<u>10,363,613</u>

In the Imperial Tables of the Census of India of 1901 the population of Burma is divided according to occupation into eight grand classes, twenty-four orders, seventy-eight suborders, and five hundred and twenty occupations. An abstract of the Imperial Tables relating to occupations will be found in Table III. of Appendix B at the end of this volume.

The occupation returns call for little comment. The percentage of the population engaged in the various occupations is shown in the following table, which includes persons supported as well as actual workers:

PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POPULATION OF BURMA
SUPPORTED BY THE VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS.

Class A.	Government	1.85 per cent.
Class B.	Pasture and Agriculture	67.04
Class C.	Personal Service	1.00
Class D.	Preparation and Supply of Material Substances	18.55
Class E.	Commerce, Transport, Storage	4.34
Class F.	Professions	2.54
Class G.	Unskilled Labour, not Agricultural	4.25
Class H.	Independent of Occupation40
	Not included in the above03
Total		<u>100.00</u>

It will be readily seen from the above table that Burma, in its present state of development, is essentially an agricultural country. If to 67 per cent. of the population shown under Pasture and Agriculture, we add all those who are partially supported by agriculture, those who are employed in affairs connected with agriculture, such as workers in the rice mills, and persons engaged in occupations connected with forest produce, such as teak workers, a total will be reached of persons dependent on pasture, agriculture, and forestry little short of 75 per cent. of the total population of the country.

An interesting and significant fact disclosed by the census is the large number of women engaged in commerce. The details will be found under Order 18, in Table III. of Appendix B of this volume.

Briefly, there were 996 women employed as bankers and money-lenders, 2,650 as general merchants, 30,921 as shopkeepers, 679 as brokers, agents, and commercial travellers, 271 as contractors for labour and as emigration agents, and 293 as general contractors. The total number of women employed under the general Class E.—Commerce, Transport, and Storage, was 36,913, the number of males being 72,436.

THE POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO EDUCATION,
CENSUS OF 1901.

The question of the literacy of the population of Burma and of the progress of educational work in the Province in the period intervening between the census of 1891 and that of 1901 presents a number of difficulties to the investigator. The matter is clearly presented in the following paragraphs which are adapted from Mr. C. C. Lowis's Report on the Census of 1901:—

In Chapter VII. of his Report on the Census of 1891 Mr. Eales has dwelt at some length on the unsuitability of the educational classification adopted at the 1891 census, namely, that which divided the population into (1) literates, (2) learners, and (3) illiterates. The anomaly of a system which places the advanced student on a lower educational level than the ploughman who has just—but only just—the requisite smattering of the first two of the three R's, is so obvious that it is hardly surprising that this threefold classification should have been discarded in 1901 in favour of one which recognises only two educational classes, the literate and the illiterate, namely, those able and those not able to read and write. Even under the simplified system there is still boundless scope for difference of opinion as to the precise amount of reading and writing required to place an individual in the category of literates, and it is well clearly to recognise that the returns can give at best but a very superficial view of the range of education in a province like Burma where, while scholarship is uncommon, absolute ignorance of the alphabet is comparatively rare. Such as it is, however, the information contained in the schedules is far more likely to mark with accuracy the dividing line between the lettered and the unlettered now that it is possible to dismiss entirely from consideration one of the points which in 1891 left room for variety of treatment.

The alteration in classification, though in itself eminently desirable, detracts somewhat from the value of a comparison of the figures of the recent census with those of the censuses preceding it. Generally speaking, there would seem to be *prima facie* grounds for assuming that those returned as "literate" at the recent census must correspond more or less roughly with the "literates" and "learners" of the 1891 enumeration, but the experience of the past shows us that the assumption may often be a rash one. It may be that ten years ago care was, as a rule, taken to include among those under instruction only those who had actually embarked on a course of tuition, but there is no warrant that here and there the expression "under instruction" may not have been construed as liberally as by some of the enumerators of Kyaukpyu who, in 1881, sanguine to a fault, took the will for the deed, and treated as learners the offspring of parents who "intended at some time or other" to send their children to a school or monastery. For the purposes of comparison with other countries where the distinction between learners and

literate is not preserved, Mr. Eales classed in his Report those under instruction with the literates. The Census Commissioner for India, however, inclines to the view that persons shown as "learning" at former enumerations should not be treated as literate for the purposes of the 1901 census. The literates of the 1901 enumeration are here treated ordinarily as corresponding with the literates of the previous censuses. It will, however, always be safest to judge from the figures themselves how far such a classification is justified in a comparison with earlier returns.

There is another matter which militates against a detailed comparison of the figures for the two enumerations; that is the alteration in the age periods selected for exhibition in the table dealing specially with the education of the people as a whole. In 1891 the periods selected for exhibition in the education table for that census were three in number, namely, 0-15, 15-25, and 25 and over. The age periods now adopted are four, so selected as to divide the younger members of the literate population up into groups corresponding approximately to primary, secondary and higher education. They are 0-10, 10-15, 15-20, and 20 and over. The two first of the 1901 age periods combined cover the same ground as the first of the 1891 age periods, but after the age of fifteen has been passed a contrast by age periods of the figures for the recent and for the previous census is impracticable.

There is one more point of special importance in connection with the definition of literacy, which should be kept in view when a contrast of the returns of the last census with those of previous enumerations is undertaken. In 1891 the instructions for filling up column 12 of the Schedule for the enumeration of that year concluded with the following passage:—

"Enter as Illiterate those who are not under instruction and who do not know how to both read and write, or who can read but not write, or can sign their name but not read."

The last eight words are those to which special attention is directed. They exclude from the rank of literates all persons whose accomplishments with the pen and pencil extend no further than to the scrawling of their name at the foot of a petition or a receipt. This class was similarly denied admission into the literate category in 1881. The principle underlying this distinction is indicated in one of the earlier paragraphs of Chapter VI. of the Census Commissioner's General Report for India 1891 in the following words:—

"Then, again, in the present day so many messengers, porters and other menials find it to their advantage to be able to sign their names, that they acquire this amount of literature without ever advancing beyond it; and it was held advisable to specially exclude this class from the category of literate."

In the 1901 instructions for filling up the column "Literate or Illiterate," no reference was made to the treatment of these illiterate signers, and the questions therefore arise: Were they as a rule included among the literates at the recent enumeration and, if they were, are their totals likely to have affected the aggregate of literacy to an appreciable extent? On the whole each question should be answered in the affirmative. If it were a question of omitting or not omitting from the roll of literates a handful of bill collectors

in the few mercantile centres of the country, it would matter but little whether persons who could sign their names and nothing more were treated as literate or not. In Burma, however, it is more than a question of a few commercial menials, for a very substantial section of the male indigenous community hovers on the border line between literacy and illiteracy, and it needs often but a trifle to turn the scale one way or the other. High as is the proportion of the educated to the total population of the Province, it would be vain to suppose that the lettered Burman was removed by many degrees from his unlettered countryman. The monastic curriculum, to which a great part of the male population is subjected, is not severe, and at best the literacy of the bulk of the folk is a plant of shallow growth. A few years' neglect will often suffice to wither it, and it not infrequently happens that the only remnant of his early teaching left to a man who would resent off-hand the imputation of illiteracy, is found, when the matter is looked into, to be his power of appending his own signature to a document. With a keen and conscientious enumerator such an one would have been treated as an illiterate at the 1881 and 1891 Censuses, while there is nothing to show that, provided he could laboriously inscribe the letters of his name, he would not at the recent enumeration have been assumed to be capable of spelling the result and, on the strength of this performance, have been assigned a place in the dignified ranks of the literate. It is far from likely that the number added to the literate population of the Province by the omission from the instructions of the eight words aforesaid is anything very great, but the facts that that omission existed and that it probably had an influence of its own upon the figures cannot reasonably be ignored.

Under conditions so different it is obvious that to embark upon a minute and detailed comparison of the 1891 and 1901 education figures would be mere waste of ink and paper. There is nothing, however, to be urged against our learning what we can from a few of the most salient points that strike the eye when the data for the two enumerations are placed side by side. "Compared with other provinces and even with some of the countries of Europe," writes Mr. Eales in paragraph 146 of his Report on the Census of 1891, "Burma takes a very high place in the returns of those able both to read and write." The actual total of literates in the Province on the 1st March 1901 was not much below that returned by the Madras Presidency, which has a population more than three times as numerous as Burma. In Madras the figure was 2,436,743. In this Province it was 2,223,962, and of this total 1,997,074 were males, and 226,888 were females. This means practically that on an average in every five persons then living in Burma one individual would have been found who was able to read and write. At the 1891 Census there were only 1,516,304 literates of the former, and 89,393 of the latter sex. It is true that, in addition to these literates, there were 227,498 males, and 18,226 females under tuition, but, however we decide to treat these learners of 1891 for the purposes of comparison, we cannot but acknowledge that there are unmistakable signs of a general advance in culture during the past decade, for if we look upon those under tuition as literate, the increase since 1891 is one of 20 per cent., while, if we treat them as illiterate, the percentage of increase during the decade mounts up to no less

than 39. We can accordingly say in general terms that there are clear indications of progress. Unfortunately we cannot go a step further and indicate the precise measure of advance, for the extension of the census area precludes us from claiming even the lesser increase of 20 per cent. as a net gain due solely to the labours of our local instructors of youth during the interval of ten years. The Shan States showed only 1,239 literates and learners in 1891. It by no means follows, because in March 1901 there were 41,409 literates in the two Superintendents' charges, that anything like 40,170 new literates have been called into existence within that area during the decennium that is just over. A considerable proportion of the 40,170 persons concerned must have possessed the necessary qualifications in 1891, but, as their owners were not enumerated, these qualifications went unrecorded. When we look away from actuals to the proportional figures for education in Burma, this fact, that allowance has to be made for the extension of the census area, becomes more than ever apparent. The percentage of literates to the total population is still high in relation to the rest of British India, but it is by no means as high as it was ten years ago. In 1891 the Census Commissioner for India pointed out that an examination of a proportional abstract of literacy in India as a whole demonstrated the facts, first that "only 58 persons in every thousand can read and write or are learning to do so, and secondly that of those 58, 53 are males, and five of the other sex." Had he then been writing of Burma only instead of the whole Indian Empire, he would for 58 have substituted 243; for 53 he would have written 229, and for 5, 14, and the merest glance at what he did write side by side with what he would in the latter event have written will suffice to show generally how extraordinarily forward Burma was in the matter of education as compared with the rest of India ten years ago. Had the date of writing been shifted on a decade, Mr. Baines would have given the proportion of Burma literates per thousand as 215, of whom 193 were males and 22 females. The last figures would seem to show a falling off, but there is nothing really discouraging in them. There is little to surprise us in an apparent diminution of even 28 per thousand when it is remembered that the vast tracts included for the first time in 1901 within the sphere of census operations were exceptionally backward and uncultured, and added to the Provincial figures nothing approaching their fair share of literates. If we assume that some of the 1891 "learners" would have failed to pass muster as "literate," had the classification been twofold instead of threefold, we shall see that the falling off is not quite so marked as 28 per thousand, still in any case it is beyond question that there are not now as many literate males in a given number of the population of the Province as there were a decade back, and that the inclusion in the operations of the Shan States and the Chin Hills is what has sent the proportion down. It may here be noted that, though the proportion of male literates has fallen, that of female literates has, in spite of adverse circumstances, risen to a higher level than in 1891.

Not the least surprising fact that was disclosed by the figures of the 1891 census was that of all the districts in Burma, the one in which the largest proportion of literate males was to be found was the Upper Chindwin. Mr.

Eales explained the high ratio in that year by pointing out that the Shan States of Kale, Thaungdut and Kanti had been excluded from the regular census, and that the operations had in consequence embraced only the more cultured portions of the district. The experience of the last enumeration shows, however, that, even had these backward areas been comprised ten years ago in the dealings of the department, the result would probably have been very much the same as it was with these tracts omitted. The figures of the 1901 census show that though the Upper Chindwin (including Kale and Thaungdut) has now to yield the first place in the matter of male literacy to Minbu, it comes a good second in the list of districts with a total of 530 literate males in every thousand of that sex. Minbu is only slightly ahead of the Upper Chindwin with 533 literate males in a similar number and Shwebo and Magwe follow it—not very closely—with 505 and 501 respectively. All these are rural, on the whole, in character. In Mandalay city the proportion is higher even than in Minbu. It is there 573 per thousand, but nowhere else in any of the political areas selected for exhibition do we find the literate males exceeding the illiterate in number. Lower Burma can show nothing higher than 487 literates in every thousand males and elsewhere the odds in favour of literacy in any given case are lower still than in Thayetmyo, which returns the Lower Burma maximum. It seems hardly conceivable in this age of progress that a remote unfavoured stretch of country like the Upper Chindwin should be able to boast of a higher proportion of literates not only than the more accessible areas of Upper Burma, but even than Rangoon city. Such, however, strange to say, is the case. In Rangoon only 410 of every thousand males were returned on the 1st March 1901 as able to read and write. There are as many as eight rural areas in Upper Burma capable of showing better figures than this. It must not be supposed that the educational standard in these eight districts is anything very imposing. It is probably very much the reverse. Still, as they stand, the figures speak volumes for the general diffusion of the elements of culture through the length and breadth of the Province. The superiority of Upper over Lower Burma in the matter of literacy is due in part to the good work of the *póngyis* in the Upper Province. At the same time it must be borne in mind that one of the reasons for the strangely low proportion of literates in Rangoon and other parts of Lower Burma is to be found in the crowds of unlettered immigrants whom the prospect of work has attracted from India to these shores. If the foreign element is eliminated, the Lower Burma figures for education tend to approximate to those for Upper Burma. It is not the Indian immigrant alone, however, who reduces the average. Education is at its lowest in the Chin Hills, Salween, and Northern Arakan, and in the Shan States the literacy figures are very far from high, so low indeed that it seems likely that more than ten years must elapse before figures as high as the 1891 proportions of literacy for the Province as a whole can again be recorded.

If Rangoon is low in the list in regard to male education, it must indubitably be yielded the palm in the matter of female literacy. Its ratio of 268 literate females per thousand takes a place far above anything that the other portions of the Province can show, and need not shirk comparison with some

of the figures for European countries, such as, for instance, of Italy, where more than 50 per cent. of the females married during 1898 were illiterate. But even outside Rangoon the female figures of proportion are not by any means minute. Mandalay city shows 126, and Hanthawaddy (which, as we know, is wholly rural in character) 110 literate females in every thousand of that sex, while Pegu has a ratio of only a little below 10 per cent. In the Lower Burma littoral division, which includes uncivilised areas like Northern Arakan and Salween, there are 66 literates in every thousand females and the proportion for Lower Burma is the same as for the coast districts. In the Province as a whole we find that 45 out of every thousand females are able to read and write. When we remember that ten years ago only 24 females in a thousand were literate, that the "learning" and "literate" females together then only averaged 29 in a thousand, and that the proportional increase of at least 16 per thousand has been effected in spite of a vast accession of illiterate folk to the population on which the ratios are calculated, we may hold out golden hopes for the future of female education in Burma.

The proportional figures of education by the main religions emphasises a fact indicated above, namely, that the foreign immigrants from India have effected the ratio of literacy in the Province to a very appreciable extent. The Animists are actually the most uneducated of the religious classes dealt with, for they can only claim 48 male and 2 female literates in 1,000 of each sex concerned, but the Musalmans are, if allowance is made for the fact that their share of adults is disproportionately large, not very much better with their total of 194 males and 39 females. The Hindus show a slightly larger proportion of literates per thousand than the Muhammadans, and in the matter of female education run the Buddhists very close, but their males are proportionately as well as actually far behind the Buddhist males. They can only show 207 literate males per thousand against the Buddhists' 410, this latter figure being, it will be observed, very nearly double the Hindu ratio. In male literacy the Buddhists are not far behind the Christians, who have returned 423 men and boys able to read and write in every 1,000 of the stronger sex, but in female literacy they compare but poorly with the last-named class. For the Buddhist 44 literate females per thousand the Christians are able to exhibit a proportion of 243, the actual figure being 16,732. These returns show how large a share in the high figure for female literacy is to be ascribed to the Christian population, and bear indirect testimony to the important part played by the missionary bodies in the work of education of the Province.

The above figures give a general idea of how the indigenous compares with the foreign population in the matter of education. In point of education as a whole, the Burmese outstrip all the other indigenous peoples with 270 literates in every thousand of their number. In male education too they are far ahead of the other communities. It can almost be said that every second Burman boy or man is able to read and write, for the proportion of literates per thousand of the sex is no less than 490. On the other hand, among girls and women, the Talaings are able to display the highest proportional figures of literacy, 62 per thousand against the Burmese 55 and the

Karen 37. In vernacular education the Karens make a comparatively poor show, but, when it comes to literacy in English, their 33 males and 12 females in every ten thousand of each sex show them to have outdistanced all the other competitors. In every ten thousand Karens (male and female) there are 23 who are able to read and write English, whereas in a similar number of Burmans and Talaings the proportion is eleven only.

Further particulars regarding the literacy of the principal races of Burma and regarding education by age, sex, and religion can be gathered from the following tables:—

LITERACY OF PRINCIPAL INDIGENOUS RACES OF BURMA,
CENSUS OF 1901.

RACE.	Number in 1,000.						Number in 10,000.		
	Literate.			Illiterate.			Literate in English.		
	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.
Burmese . .	270	490	55	730	510	945	11	20	2
Shan	79	152	9	921	848	991	1	2	—
Karen . . .	91	143	37	909	857	963	23	33	12
Chin	25	48	2	975	952	998	1	1	—
Kachin . . .	8	14	2	992	986	998	—	—	—
Talaing . . .	211	357	62	789	643	938	11	19	3

EDUCATION BY AGE AND SEX OF TOTAL POPULATION OF BURMA,
CENSUS OF 1901.

AGE PERIOD.	Number in 1,000.													Females to 1,000 males.	
	Literate.			Illiterate.			Literate in Burmese.		Literate in other lan- guages.		Literate in English.				
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Literate.	Illiterate.
0-10 . . .	22	33	12	978	967	988	31	11	2	1	1	1	1	368	1,038
10-15 . .	193	315	61	807	685	939	300	57	14	3	3	5	2	178	1,264
15-20 . .	275	485	77	725	515	923	455	71	28	4	5	9	2	167	1,895
20 and over	304	537	53	696	463	947	495	49	39	3	5	8	1	91	1,901
Total . .	215	378	45	785	622	955	350	41	25	2	4	6	1	114	1,478

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

EDUCATION BY RELIGION OF TOTAL POPULATION OF BURMA,
CENSUS OF 1901.

RELIGION.	Number in 1,000.								
	Literate.			Illiterate.			Literate in English.		
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.
Buddhist . . .	224	410	44	776	590	956	1	2	—
Animist	27	48	2	973	952	998	1	2	—
Hindu	179	207	42	821	793	958	14	17	3
Musalman . . .	139	194	39	861	806	96	7	11	1
Christian	339	423	243	661	577	757	139	186	85
Other religions .	465	521	180	535	479	820	75	71	94

Further particulars in regard to the literacy of the population of Burma will be found in Tables IV., V., and VI. of Appendix B of this volume.

THE POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO
INFIRMITIES, CENSUS OF 1901.

The infirmities recorded at the census of 1901 were insanity, deaf-mutism, blindness, and leprosy. In order to qualify for enumeration as an infirm person, it was necessary for the deaf-mute to have been deaf and dumb from birth, for the blind man to be totally blind, and for the leper to be suffering from true leprosy, not white leprosy or leucoderma.

No attempt was made in the rules furnished the enumerators to define what was and what was not insane for the purpose of the enumeration; but as the Burmese word used in the schedule, *ayy*, is used indiscriminately for all classes of persons of unsound mind, idiots, lunatics, and so on, no difficulty was caused in the Province by the absence of a more specific definition. The following paragraphs are adapted from Mr. Lowis's Report on the Census of 1901.

Inclusive of the afflicted in the Shan States and the Chin Hills there were 5,517 insanes in Burma on the night of the 1st of March, 1901. The average is high when judged by Indian standards, and the prevalence of madness has no doubt been rightly put down to the excitability and self-indulgence of the people of the country. As in 1891, more males were returned

as mad at the recent census than females. The figures for the whole of the Province are 3,209 and 2,308, respectively. This excess of males over females was common to both sections of the Province. Table VII., Appendix B, gives a general indication of the distribution of insanity over the several political and natural divisions of the Province. The Chin Hills take the highest place in the list, with a percentage of 364 male and 336 female insanes in every 100,000 of each sex. Next to the Chin Hills come the Arakan Hill Tracts, with 246 and 148, respectively. The extraordinarily large proportion of persons of unsound mind in the latter district attracted some little comment in the 1891 report, but any doubt that may then have existed as to the correctness of the figures for that year may now be said to have been set at rest by the 1901 returns. Rangoon comes next, with 227 males and 97 females in every 100,000 of each sex, but here, with a lunatic asylum, conditions are admittedly abnormal. What is really significant, however, is that after the above three districts come the Upper Chindwin and Pakókku; that is to say, the other two districts of Burma besides Northern Arakan that border on the Chin Hills. If any inference is to be drawn from these figures, it is that insanity is more than ordinarily rife in the uplands that separate Burma from Assam, Manipur, and Bengal. In his Report on the 1891 Census in the Punjab, Mr. Maclagan, the Provincial Superintendent, writes as follows in connection with insanity:—

The distribution of this infirmity no doubt follows to some extent the distribution of goitre. The form of idiocy known as cretinism is constantly accompanied by goitre, and in parts of Ambala below the hills the same word (*jaggar*) is said to be applied to an imbecile and to a person afflicted with goitre. Goitre is found mainly in the hills and in the south-west. . . .

We have it on the authority of Messrs. Carey and Tuck that goitre is prevalent in the Chin Hills, though confined to certain tracts, and that in some of the villages cretins are found “who go on all fours, mix with the pigs in the muck, and are incapable of speech.” We may therefore assume with some measure of confidence that the connection between goitre and insanity, adverted to by Mr. Maclagan in 1891, exists in Burma also, and that it is cretinism that is responsible for the excess in the Chin Hills and in the adjoining areas over the average of persons of unsound mind. If any support to the above figures is required, it is amply lent by the data contained in Table VIII., Appendix B, which exhibits the average number of afflicted per

10,000 of each sex among the principal indigenous races of Burma. The insanity figure for the Chins (23 males and 20 females in every 10,000 of each sex) is far in advance of that for any other of the Burma-born peoples. The distribution of insanity in Burma is indicated in Table VII., Appendix B, and a glance at the figures will show how much more madness prevails in Upper than in Lower Burma, and in the west than in the east of the Province. Proximity to the Chin country would seem inevitably to raise the proportion of persons of unsound mind. Outside the sphere of Chin influence the average of lunatics is, with one or two exceptions, low.

In the whole of the Province 2,843 deaf-mutes were returned as such at the 1901 enumeration. This aggregate is lower even than the 1891 total (3,904), which was not considered by any means high. As has been pointed out in the 1891 report, the figures for this infirmity have been steadily declining for many years past. In 1872 the proportion of deaf and dumb to every 100,000 of each sex was 160 in the case of males and 100 in the case of females. By 1881 this ratio had fallen by more than half; namely, to 70 and 50, respectively. In 1891 the proportion again decreased to 55 and 47, and the recent enumeration has witnessed a still further reduction to 33 and 22 deaf-mutes, respectively, in 100,000 of each sex. In fact, I consider that the figures, on the whole, are probably a very fairly accurate picture of the facts as they actually exist. They, at any rate, bear no signs of the handiwork of any zealot, like the enumerator of 1881, who included or attempted to include in the category of deaf-mutes all infants who were too young to speak. In this infirmity the males exceed the females to an even greater extent, it may be noted, at the last than at the preceding enumeration. In 1891 the totals were 2,150 males and 1,754 females: they are now 1,731 males and 1,112 females. It is worthy of remark that, after Bhamo, deaf-mutism is commonest in those areas of Upper Burma which we have seen suffer most from insanity; namely, the Chin Hills, Pakòkku, and the Upper Chindwin district. We may take it that a portion of the deaf-mutism existing in the Province can be traced back to the cretinism which has swelled the number of insanes on the western border. Possibly the high figures for Bhamo (142 males and 100 females to every 100,000 of each sex) may be accounted for in somewhat the same manner. Of Lower Burma districts Northern Arakan has, as would be expected if the above assumption were correct, the largest proportion of deaf-mutes. Here the ratio is 47 and 69 for every

100,000 of the male and the female sex, respectively, but the total population of this district is so insignificant that it would be dangerous to theorise on the infirmity figures it has returned. There are rather a large number of deaf-mutes in the Northern Shan States, whereas the Southern Shan States are, or seem to be, comparatively free from this infirmity. The local census reports, however, tend to throw some discredit on the figures for the latter region. Mr. Stirling tells us that there was, in his charge, a tendency to omit the afflicted generally from the schedules. No doubt it was the discovery of this tendency and the measures taken to counteract it that have sent up the Northern Shan States ratio. That deaf-mutism is generally more prevalent in the north than in the south of the Province cannot be doubted. In Lower Burma the difference is, of course, partly due to the large immigrant able-bodied population. Of indigenous races the Kachins show the highest proportion of deaf-mutes,—11 males and 8 females in every 10,000 of each sex. This in itself is sufficient to explain the position Bhamo holds in the list of districts.

There appear to be two main causes of blindness in Burma: the first of these is the glare of the sun, the second is small-pox. As regards the former, Mr. Baines has, in his General Report for 1891, pointed out that the axiom that drought and glare bear a direct relation to eye affections does not always find support in India as a whole. For all that, however, the conclusion that he arrives at, after a careful weighing of the matter, is that, "on the whole, the statistics for different parts of the same Province . . . seem to indicate that blindness is more prevalent, as a rule, in hot and dry tracts, and less prevalent in mountain air and within the influence of the heavier rain currents." The soundness of this conclusion would seem to be amply borne out by the statistics of blindness provided by the recent enumeration. On no other assumption can we explain why the ratios per 100,000 of each sex in the Upper Burma dry division should be 205 for males and 230 for females, while in the Upper Burma wet division they are 109 and 108, and in the Lower Burma littoral division 46 and 39, respectively. A perusal of Table VII., Appendix B, will show that ordinarily, the drier the district, the larger the tale of blind. For the Provincial maxima we have, as a rule, to go to arid districts like Pakòkku, Myingyan, and the Lower Chindwin, while moist areas, such as Salween, Thatón, and Amherst, furnish the minima. I say "as a rule" in regard to the maxima, because, as a matter of fact, Northern Arakan, a wet area, supplies the very highest

figures for the Province,—426 blind males and 326 blind females per 100,000 of each sex. The data for this district are at first sight almost alarming. It must be borne in mind, however, that they are calculated on so small a population that they are no adequate test of the extent of the affliction. When it comes to examining the actuals, the figures give no cause for apprehension. A total of 45 male and 33 female blind in a district numbering 20,682 souls, all told, is, on the face of it, almost as little a matter for concern as for congratulation, even though, when worked out proportionately, it assumes the dimensions referred to. After Northern Arakan and Thayetmyo (where conditions prevail similar to those obtaining in the dry zone) the highest proportion of blind in any Lower Burma district is in Prome, and this takes us to the second of the main causes of blindness adverted to above. For many years prior to the 1891 enumeration Prome enjoyed a somewhat unenviable reputation for small-pox, and I think that it can be hardly doubted that the large proportion of blind in this district is a legacy of successive epidemics in the past. Vaccination has done wonders during the last decade in reducing the virulence of the disease in the Prome district, and next census should see a substantial diminution in the total of blind. Small-pox is doubtless responsible for a good deal of the blindness returned in the other damp areas of the Province. Reading Table VIII., Appendix B, in the light of the above remarks, there is nothing to surprise us in the fact that the Burmans are more liable to blindness than any of the other indigenous races, and that the Shan show the next highest figure in regard to the average of afflicted.

According to the returns there were 2,940 male and 1,250 female lepers in Burma on the 1st of March, 1901. Here, as in the case of the other "scheduled" infirmities, there is a notable decrease on the figures for the previous census, when the totals were 4,543 and 1,921 for the two sexes. It is rather early in the day to ascribe much of this decrease to the benefits of segregation effected by the leper asylums, of which there are two in Mandalay and one in Rangoon. The difference is mainly due to more careful enumeration, but we are justified in according to the excellent institutions referred to some small portion of the credit for the improvement in the figures. Leprosy appears to prevail more in the west than in the east, and to flourish more in the dry than in the wet areas of the Province, though it is Northern Arakan that shows the highest percentage of lepers to total population. For the reasons assigned above in the case of blindness, too much importance should not be attached to

the Northern Arakan figures. There seems, however, to be no direct relation between rainfall and leprosy; for, though the Upper Burma dry division shows by far the highest figures (82 males and 39 females per 100,000 of the population), the Lower Burma littoral figures are higher, on the whole, than those for the Upper Burma wet division. In every district in the Province except one (Myitkyina) the male exceed the female lepers in number, in most cases very largely. The Myitkyina figures are small, far smaller than the average, and are possibly slightly defective. For the Province as a whole the ratio is 56 males and 25 females in every 100,000 of the sex concerned. Table VIII., Appendix B, tells us that the ravages of leprosy are more marked among the Chins than among any other of the indigenous races of the Province.

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CHAPTER IV.

THE GOVERNMENT OF BURMA

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HISTORICAL SUMMARY.

Previous to the 16th of January, 1862, the three Provinces of Arakan, Tenasserim, and Pegu, which had passed under British rule in consequence of the First and Second Burmese Wars, were separately administered by Commissioners, totally independent of each other and subject to no common local administrative head.

The following Resolution of the Government of India, Foreign Department, dated January 31, 1862, explains the motives which led to a change in the structure of the Burmese Government, and the steps taken at that time:—

The Governor-General in Council has long felt the necessity for establishing, in the Burmese Provinces of British India, a central administration vested with ample power, subject to the general authority of the Government of

India, to direct the affairs of those Provinces on a generally uniform system; to control the public expenditure in all departments; to exercise a close and watchful supervision over the proceedings of the local officers of every class, and to devise such measures as may be best calculated to promote the material welfare and moral advancement of the people.

They are non-regulation Provinces.* Their revenue system is in principle essentially the same. It is founded on the system which prevailed under the Burmese Government, and the modifications adopted in each Province, from time to time since it came under British rule, are due less to any variety in the condition of the three Provinces than to the differing views of the authorities by whom they have been successively administered, subject to no general and comprehensive review by one common authority. Almost the whole population, except at the seaport towns, either are Burmese or belong to some other branch of the Indo-Chinese family having no affinity with the inhabitants of Bengal. They have many characteristics in common, are accustomed to intercourse with each other, and form a group of races sufficiently homogeneous to mark the propriety of combining them under one rule.

The authority vested in the Commissioners of the three Provinces has been too limited to enable them to deal freely with any measures of importance, and indeed with many details without reference to the Government either of India or of Bengal, and the control exercised by those Governments over such distant possessions has been at times neither prompt nor effective; while projected measures of improvement have been sometimes delayed or rejected, and sometimes too hastily adopted for want of the intervention of a local officer of high position and authority capable of weighing conflicting statements and opinions, and of presenting such measures, after full discussion with a local officer in each Province, in a form in which their merits might be thoroughly comprehended, and a confident opinion formed on them by the Government.

The Governor-General in Council, having in view the formation of a system of administration best adapted to the circumstances and wants of Her Majesty's possessions in Burma, is pleased to resolve as follows:— That the three Provinces now known as the Arakan Division, the Province of Pegu, and the Tenasserim and Martaban Provinces shall be united under one Chief Civil Officer, to be styled the Chief Commissioner of British Burma. This Officer, whose headquarters will be ordinarily at Rangoon, will exercise powers similar to those now vested in the Chief Commissioner of Oudh, and will be in charge, as the Agent of the Governor-General, of the foreign relations of the British Government with the Court of Ava and other neighbour-

* "In 1793 the issue of formal and definite legislative enactments began in the series of laws known as the Bengal, Madras, and Bombay Regulations. . . . The expansion of the empire was in more or less constant progress, and when new provinces were annexed the Government shrank from taking the judicial system of the older provinces as a model. . . . It thus came to pass that there were two systems in force—one in the older provinces, and the other in the territories which had more recently come into our possession. The former were called 'Regulation' and the latter 'Non-Regulation' provinces. A Non-Regulation province was one to which the old Regulations and Acts in force in the Regulation provinces had not been extended, in which fewer officials were employed, and in which executive and judicial functions were, to a great extent, exercised by the same persons. Bengal, the North-western Provinces, Madras, and Bombay were Regulation Provinces; the Punjab, Oudh, the Central Provinces, and British Burma were Non-Regulation." (Sir John Strachey, in *India: Its Administration and Progress*, Third Edition, pp. 91-93.)

ing States on the Eastern Frontier. He will also exercise the powers of the Judicial Commissioner for the general superintendence of the administration of justice and for hearing appeals from the Divisional Commissioners. His salary will be Rupees 50,000 a year including all travelling expenses, and he will have a Secretary on a salary of Rupees 9,600 a year with an allowance for travelling expenses and with an establishment not exceeding, in respect to cost, that now entertained for the Commissioner of Pegu. The Chief Commissioner will submit an early report on the strength and expense of the establishment actually required. That the Province of British Burma shall comprise three divisions each under a separate Commissioner, to be styled the Pegu, Tenasserim, and Arakan Divisions. The limits of these Divisions will at first correspond with those of the existing Commissionerships, but they may be altered hereafter. Each Commissioner will receive a salary of Rupees 30,000 a year including all travelling expenses. That in place of the present Deputy and Assistant Commissioners there shall be appointed for the whole Province of British Burma:—

2 Deputy Commissioners	of the	1st Class	at Rs.	1,500	<i>per mensem.</i>
3 “ “	“ “	2d	“ “	1,200	“ “
5 “ “	“ “	3d	“ “	1,000	“ “
*5 “ “	“ “	4th	“ “	800	“ “
5 Assistant Commissioners	“ “	1st	“ “	700	“ “
3 “ “	“ “	2d	“ “	600	“ “
6 “ “	“ “	3d	“ “	500	“ “

costing altogether Rupees 286,000 a year. That instead of a Judicial Commissioner for the whole Province, whose ordinary business can well be undertaken by the Chief Commissioner, and who as Judge of a special Court sitting at the headquarters of each Division could not possibly dispose of the causes arising at each place in a manner that would satisfy the suitors or be consistent with the prompt and regular administration of Justice, there shall be established at Rangoon and Maulmein a Court to be presided over by a Barrister or Advocate of not less than five years' standing with full powers of Civil and Criminal Jurisdiction analogous to those exercised by the Recorder of Prince of Wales Island and Singapore, with the exception of the power to try cases in which European British subjects are charged with capital offence.

In pursuance of the above Resolution the newly created Chief Commissioner of British Burma issued the following Minute, dated 10th of February, 1862:—

“In pursuance of the Resolution . . . dated 31st January 1862 . . . it becomes necessary to indicate the departments of the public service which will remain under the direct control of the Chief Commissioner, and those which, until further

*This includes the Town Magistrates of Rangoon, Maulmein, and Akyab, who will be maintained at their present rate of pay; i.e., 800 rupees *per mensem*.

orders, will still continue under the immediate orders of the Commissioners of Divisions. Under the Chief Commissioner's control there will be the following departments:—1. Department of Public Works, in which the Chief Engineer is *ex officio* Secretary. 2. All arrangements and correspondence with the General commanding the Division, relating to military affairs. 3. Forests. 4. Police. 5. Prisons. 6. Port Blair. 7. Communications with the Burmese Government. 8. Marine. Under the Commissioners of Divisions there will be the following: 1. Judicial. 2. Revenue. 3. Medical. 4. Customs. 5. Education. 6. Settlement of Land Revenue. 7. Municipal Affairs and Local Funds. 8. Port Affairs. 9. Communications with the Karennee States, with the various Shan States, and with petty independent frontier tribes.”

The Province of Burma remained a Chief Commissionership until May 1, 1897, when it was raised to the rank of a Lieutenant-Governorship. A Legislative Council was appointed on August 1, 1897. Prior to this date all Legislative power for the Province of Burma resided in the Legislative Council of the Governor-General of India.

THE GOVERNMENT OF BURMA IN ITS PRESENT FORM.

The powers for the Government of Burma reside in the following persons and bodies: 1. The Secretary of State for India, with whom is associated the Council of India. 2. The Governor-General of India, with whom is associated the Governor-General's Council. 3. The Lieutenant-Governor of Burma, with whom is associated the Legislative Council of Burma. The first of these is commonly known as the Home Government, and its location is in London; the second is known as the Government of India, and its location is at Calcutta during the cold weather, and at Simla during the rest of the year; the third is known as the Government of Burma, and its location is at Rangoon in the cold weather, and at Maymyo in the hot weather.

The following description of the powers and functions of the Secretary of State for India and of the Council of India is taken

from Chapter II. of Sir Courtenay Ilbert's
The Government of India.

The Secretary of State for India and the Council of India. At the head of the administration in England is the Secretary of State, who exercises, on behalf of the Crown, the powers formerly exercised by the Board of Control and the Court of Directors of the East

India Company, and who, as a member of the Cabinet, is responsible to, and represents the authority of, Parliament.

He is assisted by a Council, the Council of India, originally fifteen in number, but, under an Act of 1889, capable of being reduced to ten. The members of the Council are appointed by the Secretary of State, and hold office for a term of ten years, with a power of reappointment under special circumstances for a further term of five years. There is also a special power to appoint any person "having professional or other peculiar qualifications" to be a member of the Council during good behaviour. At least nine members of the Council must be persons who have served or resided in British India for not less than ten years, and who have left British India not more than ten years before their appointment. A member of the Council cannot sit in Parliament.

The duties of the Council of India are to conduct, under the direction of the Secretary of State, the business transacted in the United Kingdom in relation to the Government of India, and the correspondence with India. The Secretary of State is President of the Council, and has power to appoint a Vice-President.

Every order proposed to be made by the Secretary of State must, before it is issued, be either submitted to a meeting of the Council or deposited in the council-room for seven days before a meeting of the Council. But this requirement does not apply to orders which, under the old system, might have been sent through the secret committee.

In certain matters, including the expenditure of the revenues of India, orders of the Secretary of State are required by law to obtain the concurrence of a majority of votes at a meeting of his Council. But in all other matters the Secretary of State can overrule his Council, subject to a right on the part of any dissentient member to have his opinion, and the reasons for it, recorded. The Council is thus a consultative body, without any power of initiation, and with a very limited power of veto. Even on questions of expenditure, where they arise out of previous decisions of the Cabinet, as would usually be the case in matters relating to peace or war, or foreign relations, the Secretary of State has the practical power, though perhaps not the technical right, to overrule his Council. For the better transaction of business the Council is divided into committees.

The establishment of the Secretary of State, that is to say the permanent staff constituting what is popularly known as

the India Office, was fixed by an order of the Queen in Council made under the Act of 1858 (21 and 22 Vict. c. 106). It is divided into departments, each under a separate permanent secretary, and the committees of the Council are so formed as to correspond to these departments.

All the revenues of India are required by law to be received for and in the name of the King, and to be applied and disposed of exclusively for the purposes of the Government of India. The expenditure of these revenues, both in India and elsewhere, is declared to be subject to the control of the Secretary of State in Council, and no grant or appropriation of any part of the revenues is to be made without the concurrence of the majority of the votes at a meeting of the Council of India. (Note the practical qualifications of this requirement referred to above.) Except for repelling or preventing actual invasion of His Majesty's Indian possessions, or under other sudden and urgent necessity, the revenues of India are not, without the consent of both Houses of Parliament, to be applicable to defraying the expenses of any military operation carried on beyond the external frontiers of those possessions by His Majesty's forces charged upon those revenues.

The accounts of the Indian revenue and expenditure are laid annually before Parliament, and the accounts of the Secretary of State in Council are audited by an auditor who is appointed by the King, by warrant countersigned by the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

For the purpose of legal proceedings and contracts, but not for the purpose of holding property, the Secretary of State in Council is a juristic person or body corporate by that name, having the same capacities and liabilities as the East India Company. He has also statutory powers of contracting through certain officers in India.

At the head of the Government in India is the Governor-General, who is also Viceroy, or representative of the King.

The Governor-General of India and his Council. He is appointed by the King by warrant under his sign manual, and usually holds office for a term of

five years. He is bound, both by the terms of his commission and by Imperial Act, to pay due obedience to all such orders as he may receive from the Secretary of State, and he must keep that official constantly informed of all matters relating to India. He is also subject to various restrictions contained in divers Imperial Acts, and in particular is prohibited from engaging in war or making a treaty for guaranteeing the possessions

of any State, except by the express command of the Secretary of State, or for purposes of defence. He has a Council, which at present consists of six ordinary members and one extraordinary member, the Commander-in-Chief, who may be and in practice always is appointed to the Council. The ordinary members of the Governor-General's Council are appointed by the Crown, in practice for a term of five years. Three of them must be persons who, at the time of their appointment, have been for at least ten years in the service of the Crown in India, and one must be a barrister of England or Ireland, or a member of the Faculty of Advocates of Scotland, of not less than five years' standing. If there is a difference of opinion in the Council, under ordinary circumstances the opinion of the majority prevails, but, under exceptional circumstances, the Governor-General has the power to overrule his Council.

If the Governor-General visits any part of India unaccompanied by his Council, he is empowered to appoint some ordinary member of his Council to be President of the Council in his place, and in such case there is a further power to make an order authorising the Governor-General alone to exercise all the executive powers of the Governor-General in Council.

The official acts of the central Government of India run in the name of the Governor-General in Council, often described as the Government of India. The executive work of the Government of India is distributed among departments, and of these there are at present eight: Home, Foreign, Finance, Military, Public Works, Revenue and Agriculture, Commerce and Industry, and Legislation. At the head of each of these departments is one of the secretaries to the Government of India, who corresponds to a permanent secretary in England, and each of them, except the Foreign Department, is assigned to the special care of one of the members of Council. The Foreign Department is under the immediate superintendence of the Viceroy, who may thus be called his own Foreign Minister, although members of the Council share responsibility for such matters relating to the department as come within their cognisance.

Minor questions relating to the executive work of the Government are settled departmentally. Questions involving a difference of opinion between two departments, or raising any grave issue, are brought up to be settled in Council.

The Council usually meets once a week, but special meetings may be summoned at any time. The proceedings are private,

and the procedure is of the same informal kind as at a meeting of the English Cabinet, the chief difference being that one of the secretaries to the Government usually attends, during the discussion of any question affecting his department, and takes a note of the order passed.

Every despatch from the Secretary of State is circulated among all the members of the Council, and every despatch to the Secretary of State is signed by every member of the Council who is present at headquarters, as well as by the Viceroy, unless he is absent. If any member of the Council dissents from any despatch signed by his colleagues, he has the right to append to it a minute of dissent.

The Governor-General and his Council hold legislative as well as executive meetings, but at the former the Council is enlarged by the addition of the Lieutenant-Governor or Chief Commissioner of the Province in which the meeting is held, and of from ten to sixteen nominees of the Governor-General, who hold office for two years, and of whom half at least must not be in the service of the Crown in India. Seven of these nominees are appointed on unofficial recommendations; namely, one on the recommendation of the unofficial members of each of the local councils of Madras, Bombay, Bengal, Eastern Bengal and Assam, the Punjab, and the United Provinces, and one on that of the Calcutta Chamber of Commerce.

The Legislature thus formed bears the awkward name of "The Governor-General in Council at meetings for the purpose of making laws and regulations." The Governor-General in Council at these meetings has power to make laws:—(1) For all persons, for all courts, and for all places and things within British India, (2) For all British subjects of His Majesty and for servants of the Government of India within other parts of India, that is to say, in the Native States, (3) For all persons being native Indian subjects of His Majesty, or native Indian officers or soldiers in His Majesty's Indian forces when in any part of the world, whether within or without His Majesty's dominions, (4) For all persons employed or serving in the Indian Marine Service.

But the legislative power of the Governor-General in Council is subject to various restrictions. It does not extend to the alteration of any Act of Parliament passed since 1860, or of certain specified portions of earlier Acts; and does not enable the Legislature to make any law affecting the authority of Parliament or any part of the unwritten law or constitution of the United Kingdom whereon may depend the allegiance of any

person to the Crown or the sovereignty or dominion of the Crown in any part of British India.

Measures affecting the public debt or revenues of India, the religion or religious rites or usages of any class of His Majesty's subjects in India, the discipline or maintenance of the military or naval forces, or the relations of the Government with foreign States, cannot be introduced by any member without the previous sanction of the Governor-General. Every Act requires the assent of the Governor-General, unless it is reserved by him for the signification of His Majesty's pleasure, in which case the power of assent rests with the Crown. The assent of the Crown is in other cases not necessary to the validity of an Act of the Government of India, but any Act may be disallowed by the Crown.

Under the Act of 1861 the powers of the Legislative Council were strictly confined to the consideration of measures introduced for enactment or of rules for the alteration in the conduct of business; but under the Act of 1892 rules may be made authorising discussion of the annual financial statement and the asking of questions, but only under such conditions and restrictions as may be prescribed. Under the rules made in pursuance of this power the annual financial statement must be made publicly in Council. Every member is at liberty to make any observations he may think fit, and the financial member of Council and the President have the right of reply. Under the same rules due notice must be given of any question, and each question must be a request for information only, and must not be put in argumentative, or hypothetical, or defamatory language. No discussion is permitted in respect of an answer given on behalf of the Government, and the President may disallow any question which, in his opinion, cannot be answered consistently with the public safety.

Besides the formal power of making laws through the Legislative Council, the Governor-General has also, under an Act of 1870, power to legislate in a more summary manner, by means of regulations, for the government of certain districts in India, in a backward state of civilisation, which are defined by orders of the Secretary of State, and which are known as "scheduled districts." Under the Act of 1861 the Governor-General has also the power, in cases of emergency, to make temporary Ordinances which are to be in force for a term not exceeding six months. The power of legislating by regulations is constantly used in regard to the more backward parts of India; but temporary Ordinances are seldom made.

The Lieutenant-Governor of Burma is appointed by the Governor-General of India, with the approval of the King. It is the practice to make the appointment from amongst the members of the Indian Civil Service; and the office is usually held for five years. The salary attached to the post is one hundred thousand rupees per annum, equal to £6,666, or about \$33,000. In addition to this the Lieutenant-Governor is provided with an official residence at Rangoon and another at Maymyo.

The Lieutenant-Governor is assisted by a Legislative Council consisting of nine members, nominated by the Lieutenant-Governor and appointed by the Secretary of State for India in Council. As a rule, five of the members are servants of the Government, and four are chosen from the non-official community.

The Local Legislature of Burma was created in 1897, under powers granted by the Indian Councils Act of 1861, at the time when the Province was raised from the status of a Chief Commissionership to that of a Lieutenant-Governorship.

The powers of the Local Legislature are more limited than those of the Legislative Council of the Governor-General. It cannot make any law affecting any Act of Parliament for the time being in force in the Province, and it may not, without the previous sanction of the Governor-General, make or take into consideration any law, (1) Affecting the public debt of India, or the customs duties, or any other tax or duty for the time being in force and imposed by the authority of the Governor-General in Council for the general purposes of the Government of India; or, (2) Regulating any of the current coin, or the issuing of any bills, notes, or other paper currency; or, (3) Regulating the conveyance of letters by the post-office or messages by the electric telegraph within the Province; or, (4) Altering the Indian Penal Code; or, (5) Affecting the religion or religious rites or usages of any class of His Majesty's subjects in India; or, (6) Affecting the discipline or maintenance of any part of His Majesty's naval or military forces; or, (7) Regulating patents or copyright; or, (8) Affecting the relations of the Government with foreign Princes or States.

The legislative powers of the Council are exercised subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council, to whom all Bills under the provisions of section 43 of the Indian Councils Act of 1861,* or which contain penal clauses, are submitted

* Which embodies the 8 limitations stated in the preceding paragraph.

for previous sanction, and to whom also every project of law is forwarded for transmission to the Secretary of State for India before it is introduced into Council.

Under section 5 of the Indian Councils Act of 1892, the Lieutenant-Governor in Council may from time to time, by Acts passed under and subject to the provisions of the Indian Councils Act of 1861, and with the previous sanction of the Governor-General, but not otherwise, repeal or amend, as regards the Province of Burma, any law or regulation made either before or after the passing of the Indian Councils Act of 1892, by any authority in India other than the Burma Legislature; provided that an Act or provision of an Act made by the Local Legislature, and subsequently assented to by the Governor-General in pursuance of the Indian Councils Act of 1861, shall not be deemed invalid by reason only of its requiring the previous sanction of the Governor-General under the section conferring the power so to repeal or amend.

At a legislative meeting of the Lieutenant-Governor of Burma in Council no business may be transacted other than the consideration of measures introduced, or proposed to be introduced into the Council for the purpose of enactment, or the alteration of rules for the conduct of business at legislative meetings.

At any such meeting no motion may be entertained other than a motion for leave to introduce a measure into the Council for the purpose of enactment, or having reference to a measure introduced or proposed to be introduced into the Council for that purpose, or having reference to some rule for the conduct of business.

The Lieutenant-Governor may, with the sanction of the Governor-General in Council, make rules for authorising at any legislative meeting of his Council the discussion of the annual financial statement of the Local Government, and for the asking of questions, but under such restrictions as to subject, or otherwise, as may be prescribed or declared applicable in the rules governing the proceedings of the Council. But no member at any legislative meeting of the Council has power to submit or propose any resolution or to divide the Council in respect of any financial discussion or the answer to any question.

It is not lawful for any member of the Council to introduce, without the previous sanction of the Lieutenant-Governor, any measure affecting the public revenues of the Province or imposing any charge on those revenues.

Rules for the conduct of business at legislative meetings of

the Lieutenant-Governor in Council * may be made at legislative meetings of the Council, subject to the assent of the Lieutenant-Governor; but any such rule may be disallowed by the Governor-General in Council, and, if so disallowed, shall have no effect; provided that rules made with respect to the discussion of the annual financial statement and the asking of questions are not to be subject to amendment.

When an Act has been passed by the Council, the Lieutenant-Governor, whether he was or was not present in Council at the passing of the Act, may declare that he assents to or withholds his assent from the Act. If he withholds his assent, the Act has no effect. If he assents to an Act, he must forthwith send an authentic copy of the Act to the Governor-General, and the Act has not validity until the Governor-General has assented thereto, and that assent has been signified by the Governor-General to the Lieutenant-Governor, and has been published by the Lieutenant-Governor.

Where the Governor-General withholds his assent from an Act, he must signify to the Lieutenant-Governor in writing his reason for so withholding his assent.

When any Act has been assented to by the Governor-General, he must send to the Secretary of State an authentic copy thereof, and it is lawful for His Majesty to signify through the Secretary of State in Council his disallowance of the Act. Where the disallowance of any Act has been so signified, the Lieutenant-Governor must forthwith notify the disallowance, and thereupon the Act, as from the date of the notification, becomes void.

Assent to the Acts of Local Legislatures in India has been withheld on one or more of the following grounds: 1. That the principle or policy of the Act, or of some particular provision of the Act, is unsound. 2. That the Act, or some provision of the Act, is *ultra vires* of the Local Legislature. 3. That the Act is defective in form.

Details as to the legislation actually in force in Burma are given in Chapter VII. of this volume.

COMPARISON BETWEEN BRITISH AND NATIVE GOVERNMENT.

A question of great interest to students of colonisation is that of the estimation in which foreign methods of administration are held by the natives of dependent countries.

* The Rules for the conduct of the Legislative Business of the Council of the Lieutenant-Governor of Burma are printed in full in Appendix F of this volume.

In regard to India this question is the subject of a most important document, published in 1868 under the title *Correspondence regarding the Comparative Merits of British and Native Administration in India*.

The circumstances under which this correspondence was published were as follows. On May 24, 1867, in the debate in the House of Commons on the Mysore succession, Lord Cranbourne took occasion to institute a comparison between the British and Native systems of government in India, and to point out certain defects which appeared to him inherent in the former. The subject thus started appeared to the Governor-General of India to be of such an interesting character, and there seemed so much to be said on the opposite side of the question, that His Excellency caused a confidential circular to be issued, calling on various officers of high rank, throughout the Indian Empire, to submit an expression of their respective opinions in the matter.

The correspondence was subsequently published under the title stated above. The whole volume is of the greatest interest; but I reproduce here only the memorandum by Colonel A. Fytche, Chief Commissioner of Burma, as being alone immediately pertinent to the subject of this part of my Report.

"1. It may be premised that the following paper has been drawn up on the understanding that data should be furnished showing as clearly as possible the material progress of British Burmah under British Administration, as compared with its condition under Native rule, or with the condition of existing neighbouring States and Powers; and that no discussion or argument is desired as to the popularity of our rule, or the advantages which it may possess, except so far as these are to be assumed from the statements indicative of the comparative progress of the people under our Government.

"2. British Burmah affords means of drawing a fair comparison between British and Native Administration, because it has in immediate contact with it as a Government the very power from whose dominions the province was obtained. In 1826 the provinces of Arrakan and Tenasserim were annexed to the British territories from the Burmese Power, still leaving to the King of Ava the whole of the northern portion of his dominions, as well as the important province of Pegu, formed of the lower portion of the valley of the Irrawaddy River and its delta. We thus obtained possession of the least productive portion of the Burmese Kingdom, while the King retained the magnificent

lands of Pegu, with the valuable outlet of Rangoon, to which point foreign trade had solely been drawn.

“3. A reference to the map will show that the province of Pegu was fairly interposed between the newly-acquired districts, in a position easily to withdraw from them both population and trade, provided Native rule had proved more attractive to either. These conditions, then, seemed to furnish a fair test—only that the presumption was in favour of the Native dynasty in virtue of its holding a far richer and more accessible country.

“4. As it is required that the endeavour to compare the result of British and of Native rule in these countries is to be made on specific data, it is necessary to select some one element of advancement as a standard, from which can be deduced the many numerous conditions which go to make up material progress. If this be not done, the comparison must spread out into an examination too minute and extended to be satisfactorily disposed of within a reasonable compass—and the difficulty is increased from the impossibility of obtaining in detail the items which constituted the revenue, taxes, and trade of British Burmah previous to our occupation, in such a shape as would enable individual comparison with the fiscal arrangements now in force.

“5. In the East there is probably no better general test of the advancement of a country than the rise or fall, the ebb or flow, of its population. A steady increase in the population indicates in fact a prosperous people, a firm and stable Government, and an absence of oppression. It produces, especially where the proportion is not in excess of the capabilities of the soil, extended cultivation and increased trade. If then it can be fairly shown that the population of the provinces composing British Burmah has increased at a rate which far exceeds the numbers to be obtained from natural increase, and must be attributed to immigration; that in one instance where the locality whence the immigration was drawn became British, the exodus ceased; while the flow from Native States into British districts more accessible continued; and that where detailed statistics are available, it will be seen our frontier districts have increased at the highest ratio, then we may conclude that British administration in Burmah has proved its superiority over Native rule. In British Burmah the population returns are fairly reliable, because they are susceptible of easy check from the Capitation Tax in force in these provinces. This tax is levied from all male adults, and the revenue received therefrom—actual money paid into the treasury at fixed rates per head—has shown a proportional increase, corresponding with the rise in population.

"6. It is well known that when Arrakan and Tenasserim first came into our possession in 1826 they were almost depopulated, and were so unproductive that it was seriously deliberated whether they should not be restored to Burmah. The following figures will show how much these apparently unprofitable acquirements prospered under our administration.

"7. In 1826 the province of Arrakan, with an area of 18,630 square miles, had a population of only 100,000 souls; these were the indigenous population. In 1835 this had risen to 211,536, of whom not more than 6,000 were foreigners. In 1845 the population numbered 309,608, an increase of 50 per cent. in the decade, and in 1855 reached 366,310, or 15 per cent. in the decade; but in 1852 Pegu had become a British possession, the effect of which was immediately felt in Arrakan, still the total increase in Arrakan during the 29 years was 250 per cent. of the indigenous population, or an average of 50 per cent. in each decade.

"8. Now, turning to Tenasserim, we find that in 1829, three years after the annexation, the population in a province with an area of 28,000 square miles was estimated at a little over 70,000 souls. In 1835 it had risen to 84,917, or 21 per cent. in six years. In 1845 to 127,455, or 50 per cent. in the decade. In 1855 to 213,692, or 69 per cent. in the decade. In other words, it had increased by 200 per cent. in 26 years. The actual increase in the home population of England and Wales (after the loss from emigration) has been about 12 per cent. in each decade for the last 50 years.

"9. To support the above returns, we will give the statistics of revenue and assessed cultivation during the same period. The revenue of Arrakan, which in 1826 was £23,225, rose as follows: In 1835 to £52,832; in 1845 to £68,455; and in 1855 to £127,729. The area of assessed cultivation, commencing in 1830 with 66,227 acres, advanced in 1835 to 133,952; in 1845 to 233,769; and in 1855 to 353,885 acres, while the value of the entire trade in the same year amounted to £1,876,998.

"10. In Tenasserim the first year's revenue in 1825-26 was £2,676. In 1835-36 it had risen to £33,953; in 1845-46, £52,525; and in 1855-56 had reached £83,300, while the total trade amounted to £836,305. Land under cultivation was not assessed by area in the earlier years of our occupation, and we have no returns on that head until 1843, when 100,657 acres were assessed. This in 1845 had increased to 119,869, and in 1855-56 to 181,681.

"11. Now, from 1826 until 1852, these provinces of Arrakan and Tenasserim had, as a competitor both for trade and popu-

lation, the Burman territories, with a frontier of some 800 miles, across which our subjects were free to go, as far as we were concerned; but not free to come, because the Burman authorities strongly opposed emigration, and put serious obstacles in the way of any of their people migrating to our territories. Yet the immense increase of population shows that very large numbers were attracted to our rule.

"12. As to the trade, there are no reliable data available to show what it could have been under Burmese rule for, say, the half-century before we occupied the provinces; but we know from the absence of any seaport towns of importance, and from the small number of vessels which ever visited these provinces from other countries, that at the time they came into our possession there was scarcely any external trade at all. During the years, however, which have now been described, Maulmain, in the Tenasserim provinces, became from a fishing village a city of 60,000 inhabitants, and Akyab, in Arrakan, similarly sprung into existence and reached a population of 20,000 souls.

"13. So far has been traced the progress of these provinces up to 1855, but in 1852 the province of Pegu, including the rich delta of the Irrawaddy, had been annexed to our territory, the three provinces eventually forming British Burma; and we have brought the older two provinces up to 1855, because from that date a carefully prepared statement of the statistics of the whole three provides a ready reference on all points of their material progress, as well as because in the first few years of our occupation of Pegu the returns are necessarily not so reliable as when the administration was completely organised.

"14. Pegu came into our possession in 1852, with an estimated population of 500,000 souls, and an area of 33,400 square miles, or a ratio of 15 persons to the square mile. In 1855 it is returned at 631,640 souls, or nearly 19 to the square mile. It will be remembered that Arrakan, commencing in 1826 with a ratio of $5\frac{1}{2}$ persons to the square mile, had risen in 1855 to a ratio of 20 persons; and Tenasserim, from a ratio of $2\frac{1}{2}$ persons in 1829, had increased to 7 persons per square mile in 1855. But it would seem that in the beginning of the century the population of the true Burman Empire (that is, Upper Burmah as now constituted, Pegu and Martaban) was estimated by various authorities at from 20 to 23 persons the square mile, and if this were the general average it may be concluded that the fertile province of Pegu containing the valley of the Irrawaddy, with that river as the highway from the seaport town of Rangoon to Ava, the

Capital of the Empire, must have had a higher rate than the remainder of the country.

“15. But taking the population of Pegu at 23 persons the square mile in 1826, we can then compare the position of the territories, British and Native, after 29 years of mutual contact, thus:—

	1826. Population.	1855. Population.
Native, Pegu	769,120	719,640
British { Arrakan	100,000	341,310*
{ Tenasserim	70,000	213,692
Total	939,120	1,274,642

Now we know that the gross increase in Arrakan and Tenasserim in these 29 years was 385,000 souls, from which, allowing the natural increase during that period to have been 75 per cent. on the original population, we may deduct 127,500 on that account, and this will leave us 257,500 souls as the emigration from Pegu and the other Native Burman States into British territory; and if we compare Pegu (including Martaban) fairly estimated in 1826 with Pegu (including Martaban) even in 1855, three years after it came into our possession, during which period its population is believed to have risen from 588,000 to 719,640, we find it with nearly 50,000 less population at the latter than at the former period. This is an astonishing result, when placed against the immense progress of the British territories in its immediate neighbourhood.

“16. The very scanty ratio of population to area which it is believed Burmah has, within historical periods, always had under Native rule, is almost certain proof that the actual natural increase is very low, or rather has been very low, yet it has very great capacity for supporting human life; and we have been able in tracing the British occupation of Arrakan and Tenasserim, far less productive countries, to provide for a natural increase in them of 75 per cent. in 29 years, and even then have a large surplus population. Had Pegu, during the same period with its greater advantages, increased at the same proportion, it should have been possessed of a population of more than 1,000,000 souls when it came into our hands. Instead of this we find its

*Not including foreigners.

population to have retrograded, and there can be no reasonable doubt that the people who should have enriched the Native State were drawn into British territory.

"17. Having thus brought up these provinces to 1855, we shall now trace their progress since that period. The province of Pegu, as has been said, came into our possession in 1852; but making allowances for the distressed condition of a country after a campaign, and for the imperfect returns accidental to a newly-organised administration, we may pass over the years up to 1855, and from that date commence our deductions.

"18. Now, as to the province of Pegu, it faces, with a perfectly open frontier of (say) 200 miles, the still existing Burmese territories under the King of Ava, so that it is fairly pitted against the possibly superior attractions of Native rule. From our territories any subject of ours is free to move into Upper Burmah whenever he desires, whereas there is a steady opposition shown to any emigration from the King's dominions into ours. So strong is this that when families of cultivators wish to cross they are frequently obliged to do so by stealth at night, bringing possibly their cattle and carts, but abandoning their houses and much property. They send intelligence constantly to our Police stations on the frontier to announce that they are coming, asking at the same time that a guard may meet them on the frontier to protect them from the pursuing Burmese officials; and again and again are our Police Stations flanked by the camps of whole villages who have bodily moved into our territories and taken shelter there until they had selected their future fields.

"19. In the face of these difficulties, then, we find that Pegu, first a separate province, now a division of British Burmah, had in 1855 a population of 631,640 souls, which in 1865 had risen to 1,350,989, that is, had more than doubled itself in ten years, the exact increase being 113 per cent. The proportion of population to area had increased from 19 to 40 per square mile. If we allow a natural increase of 25 per cent. during the decade in question, we may deduct 157,910 on that account; and 20,000, the number of foreigners, from 719,349, which is the total gross increase; and these deductions will leave us an immigration of the indigenous population into our territories of the enormous number of 561,439 souls in the 10 years from 1855 to 1865.

"20. Further, if we look to the increase of individual districts during the same period, it will appear that their ratio of increase is strangely in accordance with their propinquity to foreign territory, and their consequent facility for absorbing emigrants. Thus the Prome district, which in its northern aspect forms our

frontier in the valley of the Irrawaddy, has increased its population by no less than 156 per cent. in these 10 years. The Tounghoo district, which is our frontier in the valley of the Sittang (also facing Upper Burmah), has had its population augmented in the same period 115 per cent. The Myanounng district, which adjoins Prome to the south, shows an increase of 81 per cent. The Bassein district, which has drawn, as will be shown hereafter, from Arrakan as well as Upper Burmah, has raised its population by 113 per cent. While the Rangoon district, which is the most southerly and removed from our frontier, has increased by 70 per cent. in the same decade.

"21. The population returns from the other two divisions extending over the same 10 years, 1856-66, fully support the conclusion that they formerly drew their additional population from Upper Burmah and from Pegu so long as it was under Native rule, and that when the latter came under British administration the transfer ceased. Thus intercommunication between Arrakan and the Pegu Division is comparatively easy along their mutual boundary, but when we reach the Northern Frontier of the Pegu Division, running athwart the valley of the Irrawaddy, then the passage from Upper Burmah (Native) above that line to the Arrakan Division is one of considerable difficulty; in fact the Aeng Pass is the only really feasible route leading through the broad range of mountains there separating Arrakan from Burmah Proper. We have shown that while Arrakan under British administration had to compete with Pegu under Native rule, its population increased at an average of 50 per cent. each decade; but when it has Pegu under British management, as its neighbour, and physical obstacles prevent a supply being drawn from Burmah, as has been the case from 1855-56 to 1865-66, we find the population has only increased from 366,310 to 414,640, or 13 per cent. We have already pointed out that the Bassein district of the Pegu Division, which immediately adjoins Arrakan, has, during this period, increased 113 per cent., and this is probably in some degree due to the reflux of those who had, while Pegu was under Native rule, moved into the Province of Arrakan. Tenasserim, on the other hand, has many routes by which she can draw population from the Native States, and we find that in the period from 1855-56 to 1865-66 this division has increased its population from 254,605 to 430,551, or 68 per cent., a decennial rate as high as any it had attained since its occupation.

"22. The foregoing data seem to have established beyond any doubt that, during the whole period of British administration

of the provinces of Arrakan, Tenasserim, and Pegu, they have, in addition to an allowed natural increase of population, far higher than we have any historical authority for supposing they ever reached under Native rule, withdrawn and absorbed enormous numbers of people from the neighbouring Native States, which may be summarised as follows:—

Into Tenasserim and Arrakan 1826 to 1855	257,500
“ Pegu from 1855 to 1865	561,439
“ Tenasserim from 1855 to 1865	113,295
Total	<u>932,234</u>

“23. Now, looking to specific marks of material progress, to see whether they support the conclusions we would wish to draw, we find that in the Pegu Division during the decade 1855–66 the area of assessed cultivation has increased from £539,808 to 991,102 acres, or 83 per cent.; customs from £56,281 to £151,088; the total revenue from £297,753 to £646,462; while the entire trade rose from £2,143,100 to £7,300,224. These results fully bear out our argument that increased population and increased prosperity in a country situated and constituted as Burmah is run hand in hand together.

“24. Tenasserim also in the past decade has progressed satisfactorily, in accordance with the increase in its population. The assessed area has risen from 181,681 to 273,289 acres; customs from £7,796 to £13,517; the total revenue from £106,609 to £193,566; while the entire trade has increased from £836,305 to £1,712,307.

“25. Arrakan, on the other hand, shows the effect on her prosperity of having a British instead of a Native administration to contend with as a neighbour. It has been indicated already that physical obstacles stand between Arrakan and Upper Burmah, which do not, and did not, between it and Pegu. We have given the rapid increase in the population and prosperity of Arrakan up to 1855, but in the decade to 1865 there is a marked falling off. Assessed lands increased from 353,885 to 377,012 acres; revenue from £127,429 to £190,032; while trade has fallen from £1,876,998 to £1,395,580.

“We have hitherto been concerned only to show the undoubted fact that the countries under British administration have possessed advantages so manifest to the population of neighbouring Native States that a steady emigration from them into our territories has continued ever since our Government was established among the Indo-Chinese nations. The original ratio of popu-

lation to area being very low, while the life-supporting capacity of the soil is very high, this rapid increase of population has produced a remarkable progress in all the elements which go to make up the material prosperity of the country.

“27. And when we look to those Native powers which have been our competitors during this period, the picture is reversed. In the dominions of the King of Burmah, including the tributary Shan States, we find everywhere signs of progressive decay; a discontented people abandoning his territory; a decreasing revenue; the area of cultivation lessening yearly; and the weakness of the Government shown in the rebellions and outbreaks which so regularly occur. During this year (1867) had it not been for the rich granaries of Pegu, that supplied Upper Burmah with rice, a famine would have succeeded the Civil war which raged last year. The Natives of Upper Burmah themselves indicate truly the process now being undergone by the British and Native dominions. ‘Here,’ they say, ‘in British Burma, your villages are becoming towns, but with us in Upper Burmah our towns are becoming villages.’”

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CHAPTER V.

THE GENERAL ADMINISTRATION OF BURMA

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For further references consult the Bibliographical Appendix.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS OF BURMA.

(All statistics of population given in this section are taken from the Census of 1901.)

For purposes of general administration the Province of Burma is divided into two great areas,—Lower Burma and Upper Burma. To Upper Burma are attached the Shan States and the Chin Hills.

Lower Burma has an area of 81,161 square miles, and a population, according to the Census of 1901, of 5,405,967. Upper Burma, including the Shan States and the Chin Hills, has an area of 157,600 square miles, and a population, according to the Census of 1901, of 5,084,657.

Lower Burma is divided into four Divisions,—Arakan, Pegu, Irrawaddy, and Tenasserim. The Pegu and Irrawaddy Divisions were formed in 1881 by the partition of

Lower Burma. the old Pegu Division.

The Arakan Division has an area of 18,540 square miles, and the population was 762,102 at the Census of 1901. It is

divided into four districts,—Northern Arakan, Akyab, Kyaukpyu, and Sandoway. Northern Arakan, or the Arakan Hill Tracts, was separated from Akyab in 1871. It is inhabited by semi-barbarous but docile tribes, and the duties of the District Officer consist in the administration of these tribes under certain simple regulations which have been enacted for the purpose and in the protection of the inhabitants from raids by wild tribes from beyond the administrative frontier. The area of this tract is 5,233 square miles, with a population of 20,682. The Akyab district, in which is situated the chief town of the division from which the district takes its name, is divided into three subdivisions and eight townships. The Kyaukpyu and Sandoway districts have no subdivisions, but are divided into five and three townships, respectively.

The Pegu Division has an area of 13,257 square miles with a population of 1,820,638. It is divided into five districts,—Rangoon Town, the headquarters of the division, Hanthawaddy, Pegu, Tharrawaddy, and Prome. Rangoon Town is divided into two subdivisions, and Hanthawaddy into three subdivisions and seven townships. The subdivisions in the Rangoon Town were formed in 1894 for the sake of administrative convenience. The Pegu district consists of two subdivisions and five townships. Tharrawaddy district consists of two subdivisions and five townships. The Prome district lies on both sides of the Irrawaddy River, and consists of the Prome, Paungdè, and Shwedaung subdivisions, which include seven townships.

*The Irrawaddy Division** was formed in 1881 by the separation from the Pegu Division of the four districts of Bassein, Thongwa†, Henzada, and Thayetmyo. The last-named district was transferred in 1893 to the Minbu Division of Upper Burma, which was then known as the Southern Division. The Myaungmya district was formed at the same time out of portions of the Bassein and Thongwa† districts. The latter district was originally constituted in 1875 of portions of the Bassein, Henzada, and Hanthawaddy districts. It now consists of three subdivisions and seven townships. The Bassein district consists of two subdivisions and six townships. The new Myaungmya district consists of the Myaungmya and Wakema subdivisions, which are divided into four townships. The Henzada district has two subdivisions and six townships. The area of the Irrawaddy Division is 13,440 square miles, and its

* In 1904 a new district, called Pyapôn, was formed in the Irrawaddy Division.

† Now called Ma-ubin.

population is 1,663,669. The headquarters of the division are at Bassein.

The Tenasserim Division, with its headquarters at Moulmein, consists of the districts of Toungoo, Salween, Thatôn, Amherst, Tavoy, and Mergui. Its area is 35,924 square miles with a population of 1,159,558. In 1895 certain islands off the Tenasserim coast were incorporated in adjacent townships of the Amherst, Tavoy, and Mergui districts. The Toungoo district was transferred from Pegu to the Tenasserim Division in 1870. It consists of the subdivisions of Toungoo, Karen Hill Tracts, and Shwegyin, which are divided into seven townships. The Salween district is a hilly tract lying on the borders of the Siamese Province of Cheingmai, or Zimmè. The new Thatôn district consists of the subdivisions of Kyaikto, Thatôn, and Pa-an, and six townships. The Moulmein subdivision of the Amherst district, which had been a separate district for the purpose of Criminal Judicial Administration, was declared in 1898 to be a subdivision of the Amherst district. This district now consists of the subdivisions of Moulmein, Kawkareik, and Amherst, and of seven townships. Tavoy and Mergui districts consist of narrow strips of land bordering Siam on the east and the sea on the west. The former is divided into four townships, and the latter into two subdivisions and five townships.

Upper Burma (exclusive of the Shan States) was divided by a notification, dated the 29th of November, 1886, into the Northern, Central, Southern, and Eastern Divisions.

Upper Burma. The names of these four divisions were changed in 1897 to Mandalay, Sagaing, Minbu, and Meiktila, respectively.

The Mandalay Division, including the Mông Mit subdivision, with headquarters at Mandalay, contains 29,373 square miles and a population of 777,338. It is divided into the five districts of Mandalay, Bhamo, Myitkyina, Katha, and Ruby Mines. The Mandalay district consists of five subdivisions and seven townships. Bhamo contains two subdivisions and two townships. The Myitkyina district consists of the subdivisions of Myitkyina and Mogaung and three townships. The number of subdivisions and townships in the Katha district is three and eight, respectively. This district includes what was formerly the Shan State of Wuntho. The Ruby Mines district consists of the subdivisions of Mogôk, Thabeikkyin, and Mông Mit and five townships. The Mông Mit subdivision is a Shan State temporarily administered during the

minority of the *Sawbwa* as a subdivision of the Ruby Mines district.*

The Sagaing Division contains the districts of Shwebo, Sagaing, Lower Chindwin, and Upper Chindwin, and has an area of 30,038 square miles and a population of 1,000,483. The Shwebo district consists of the subdivisions of Shwebo, Kanbalu, and Ye-u, and of nine townships. The Sagaing district contains three subdivisions and six townships. The Lower Chindwin district contains two subdivisions and five townships, and the Upper Chindwin district four divisions and nine townships, including what was formerly the Shan State of Kalè. The headquarters of these districts are at Môngywa and Kindat, respectively.

The Minbu Division is divided into the four districts of Thayetmyo, Pakókku, Minbu, and Magwe. It has an area of 17,172 square miles and a population of 1,076,280. The Thayetmyo district consists of three subdivisions,—Thayetmyo, Myedè, and Minhla,—which are subdivided into six townships. In 1898 the eastern boundary of the Pakokku district was demarcated, and the Pakókku Chin Hill Tract, which had hitherto been treated as a part of the district, was placed under a Superintendent, by whom it is administered under the Chin Hills Regulation, subject to the direct control of the Commissioner, Minbu Division. The number of subdivisions and townships in the Pakókku district is three and eight, respectively. The Minbu district has two subdivisions and five townships; Magwe, two subdivisions and six townships.

The Meiktila Division, with an area of 10,852 square miles and a population of 992,807, is divided into four districts,—Kyauksè, Meiktila, Yamèthin, and Myingyan. Kyauksè district has two subdivisions and three townships, Meiktila two subdivisions and four townships, Yamèthin two subdivisions and five townships, and Myingyan two subdivisions and six townships.

The Shan States have an area of 59,915 square miles, and a population, according to the Census of 1901, of 1,137,444. There are six States under the Superintendent, Northern Shan States, and thirty-seven States under the Superintendent and Political Officer, Southern Shan States. In addition to the Northern and Southern Shan States there are two States which are under the Commissioner, Mandalay Division; namely, Hkamti Long on the north of the Myitkyina district, and Mông

* In 1906 Mông Mit was handed over to its young *Sawbwa*, Kin Maung, to be administered henceforth as a Shan State under the control and supervision of the Deputy Commissioner of the Ruby Mines District.

Mit, which is temporarily administered as a subdivision of the Ruby Mines district.* There are also two States, Sinkaling Hkamti and Hswang Hsup, near Manipur, under the supervision of the Commissioner, Sagaing Division.

The Chin Hills (exclusive of the Pakòkku Chin Hills) have an area of 8,000 square miles, and a population, according to the Census of 1901, of 87,189. The Chin Hills, with the exception noted above, are under the supervision of a Superintendent, with headquarters at Falam. Tiddim and Haka are the headquarters of the Assistant Superintendents, who are in charge of the Siyins and Sòktes and of the Haka tribes, respectively.

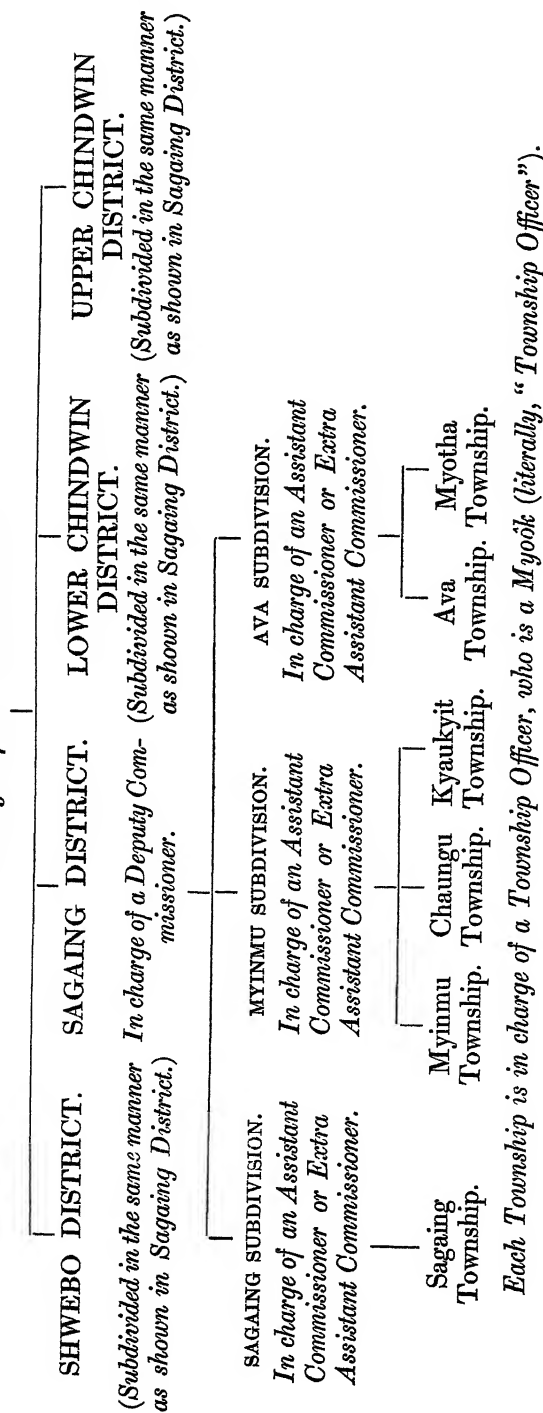
The Pakòkku Chin Hills have an area of 2,250 square miles, and a population, according to the Census of 1901, of 13,116. The headquarters are at Kanpetlet.

Changes are made from time to time in the arrangement of the administrative areas. A district is transferred from one division to another, a large district is split up into two smaller ones, a new district is created, and so on. To follow these changes closely would involve an amount of detailed treatment entirely out of proportion to any utility which could be claimed for such an analysis. The classification of divisions, districts, subdivisions, and townships, given above, is that adopted officially in the Report on the Administration of Burma for the year 1901-02. There have only been two changes of any significance since that date; namely, the creation of a new district, the Pyapôn district, out of portions of the Thongwa district and the Myaungmya district in the Irrawaddy Division of Lower Burma, and the transfer of Mông Mit to its *Sawbwa*.

The following diagram will serve to illustrate the general administrative scheme of a division. The difference between the division selected as an example and the other divisions is merely one of the number of districts, subdivisions, and townships.

*See note on p. 114.

THE SAGAING DIVISION.

In charge of a Commissioner.

The chain of responsibility and reference leads from the Township Officer to his Subdivisional Officer, from the latter to his District Officer, who in turn communicates with the Commissioner, the latter referring such matters as he does not settle on his own responsibility to one or another of the Secretaries to Government. The orders of the Government are transmitted downwards through the same channel.

SYSTEM OF ADMINISTRATIVE CONTROL.

At the head of the administration of Burma is the Lieutenant-Governor, who controls the administration of the Province through the medium of a staff of Secretaries.

The General Secretariat consists of one Chief Secretary, one Secretary, two Under Secretaries, and two Assistant Secretaries. The work of the General Secretariat* is divided in the following manner:—

THE CHIEF SECRETARY.

Political Branch. <i>Political Dept.</i>	General Branch. <i>Appointment Dept.</i> <i>General Dept.</i>	Police Branch. <i>Police Dept.</i> <i>Military Dept.</i>
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THE REVENUE SECRETARY.

Revenue Branch. <i>Revenue Dept.</i>	Forest Branch. <i>Forest Dept.</i>	Financial Branch. <i>Accounts Dept.</i> <i>Separate Revenue Dept.</i> <i>Local Funds Dept.</i>
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THE SECRETARY.

Judicial Branch.	General and Municipal Branch.	Marine and Commerce Branch.
<i>Arms, Criminal Justice, Civil Justice, Penal Settlements, Legislature, Jails, Lunatics, and Miscellaneous Departments.</i>	<i>Books and Maps, Medical, Education, Registration, Ecclesiastical, Sanitary, Municipal, and Miscellaneous Departments.</i>	<i>Marine, Light-houses, Ports, Merchant Shipping, Pilots, and Miscellaneous Departments.</i>

The Chief Secretary exercises general control over the whole Secretariat, but each Secretary is in immediate charge of the Departments with which he deals. Each Branch is in charge of a Branch Clerk, who is responsible in a general way for the work. It is his duty to make such arrangements as he may see fit for distributing the work of the Departments in his Branch among his assistants. He is directed to vary the work of his assistants, and to avoid keeping the same assistants continually employed on the same duty.

The only departments, other than the Secretariat, which have

* See further Appendix G I.

separate secretarial heads in direct touch with the Lieutenant-Governor are the Public Works Department, with two Chief Engineers one of whom is also a Secretary to the Government, a Secretary to Government in the Railway Branch, two Under Secretaries, and an Assistant Secretary; and the Financial Commissioner's Department, consisting of the Financial Commissioner, who is Chief Revenue Authority for the Province and also Chief Customs Authority, a Secretary to the Financial Commissioner, an Assistant Secretary, a Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records and Agriculture, a Deputy Director, and an Assistant Director of Land Records and Agriculture.

For convenience of reference I enumerate here all the Departments of the administration. Details of the staff and operations of each Department and of the salaries of the higher officials of the administration will be found in the departmental chapters of this Report.

Several of the administrative departments of the Province of Burma are "Imperial" departments; that is to say, their higher officials belong to the service of the General Government of India, and are assigned to service in Burma whilst liable to be transferred to any other part of British India. The pay of these

**The Imperial
Departments.**

"Imperial" officials, whilst they are in service in Burma, is a charge on the local Provincial revenues. The following departments of the Burmese administration are "Imperial": *The Forest Department*, of which the supreme head is the Inspector-General of Forests to the Indian Government, and the local head the Chief Conservator of Forests; *The Post Office and Telegraph Departments*, of which the supreme head is the Postmaster-General to the Indian Government, and the local head the Deputy-Postmaster-General, Rangoon; *The Topographical and Cadastral Survey*, of which the supreme head is the Surveyor-General to the Government of India; *The Medical Department*, of which the supreme head is the Director-General of the Indian Medical Service, and the local head the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals; *The Education Department*, of which the supreme head is the Director-General of Education to the Government of India, and the local head the Director of Public Instruction; *The Marine Department*, of which the supreme head is the Director of the Royal Indian Marine, and the local head the Principal Port Officer, Rangoon; and *The Public Works Department*, of which the local head is the Chief Engineer

and Secretary to the Government of Burma Public Works Department.*

In the Provincial departments the higher officials belong to the body known as the Burma Commission, composed of two classes of men, one consisting of those who have passed the Indian Civil Service Examinations and have been assigned permanently to Burma, the other consisting of military officers temporarily assigned for civil duty in Burma, and of a few persons appointed on account of special qualifications. The control of the Provincial departments and of their officials rests entirely with the Lieutenant-Governor of Burma and his advisers, and the Lieutenant-Governor is the ultimate authority to which any official of the Burma Commission can refer any matter, such reference being made in every case through one of the high officials of the Secretariat or through the Financial Commissioner.

The following group of departments is under the Financial Commissioner: *Land Records and Agriculture, Land Settlement, Assessed Taxes, Customs, and Registration.*

In the *Judicial Department* the official head for Lower Burma is the Chief Judge of the Chief Court of Lower Burma, and the official head for Upper Burma is the Judicial Commissioner of Upper Burma.

The *Jail Department* is under the Inspector-General of Prisons, and the *Police Department* is under the Inspector-General of Police.

The *Political Department* consists of officers administering the Shan States, the Chin Hills, the Arakan Hill Tracts, the Salween District, the Adviser on Chinese Affairs, and nine Political Agents who have special duties in connection with the Burmese districts which have frontiers with China or Siam. The head of the Political Department is the Lieutenant-Governor, who acts through the Chief Secretary to the Government.

The *Accounts Department* is under the Accountant-General; the *Paper Currency Department* is under the Commissioner of Paper Currency; the *Archæological Department* is under the Government Archæologist; the *Civil Veterinary Department*, the

* In April, 1905, a new department of the Government of India, the Department of Commerce and Industry, was formed; and this Department has taken over certain branches of administration which formerly belonged to the Public Works Department,—namely, Government coal mines and iron works, telegraphs and telephones, railway matters requiring reference to the Government of India, and commercial aspects of railway administration. The Civil Works branch of the Public Works Department—that is to say, the branch dealing with civil buildings, communications, irrigation and canals, electricity, and miscellaneous public works—has been transferred to the Department of Revenue and Agriculture. The Public Works Department of the Government of India has, therefore, ceased to exist as a separate Department; and I have been unable to find any statement showing what official may be properly described as supreme head of the Public Works Department of Burma.

Government Printing Department, and the *Government Kheddass* (elephant supply) are under their respective Superintendents.

In addition to the foregoing departments the following officials are included in the administrative machinery of the Provincial Government: a Government Translator, a Chemical Examiner, an Inspector of Mines, Inspectors and Joint Inspectories under the Factories Act of 1881, Examiners and Inspectors under the Steam-boilers and Prime-movers Act of 1882.

The administrative system of Burma is of the most highly organised type. There is probably no country in the world in which every detail of administrative procedure is laid down with greater precision and minuteness. Elsewhere (Chapter VII) I have given a brief account of the laws and regulations under which the Government of Burma conducts its administration; and I may now state concisely the method by which the Government insures the due observance of its administrative laws.

The Government of Burma publishes a series of Manuals covering every branch of administration. These Manuals contain the law relating to the subject dealt with in the Manual, together with rules, orders, directions, notifications, etc., issued thereunder. The Burma Opium Manual, 1904, may serve as an example. This Manual contains a chronological list of notifications, circulars, and rulings reproduced in the Manual; the Opium Act of 1878, as amended to November 1, 1904; the Opium Rules, 1894, as amended to November 1, 1904; Directions under the Opium Act of 1878; Forms under the Opium Rules and Directions; and an Index.

As new laws are passed, or new rules, etc., made, or amendments or changes of any sort effected, correction slips are issued to all officials using the Manuals.

The following is a list of Manuals published by the Government of Burma. The list is taken from the supplement to the *Burma Gazette* of February 25, 1905. The Manuals are grouped according to the office from which the correction slips are issued.

Issued by the Financial Commissioner.

1. The Upper Burma Land Revenue Manual. 2. The Lower Burma Land Revenue Manual. 3. The Upper Burma Registration of Deeds Manual. 4. The Lower Burma Registration of Deeds Manual. 5. The Burma Excise Manual. 6. The Burma Stamp Manual. 7. The Burma Income-tax Manual. 8. The Burma Sea Customs Manual. 9. The Sub-divisional and Township Office Manual. 10. The Burma District Office

Manual. 11. The Burma Opium Manual. 12. The Manual of Rules relating to precious stones, minerals, and mineral oils, in force in Burma.

Issued by the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records and Agriculture.

1. Directions to Settlement Officers, Lower Burma. 2. Directions to Settlement Officers, Upper Burma. 3. Directions to Revision Settlement Officers. 4. Directions to Revenue Officers regarding Supplementary Survey, Lower Burma. 5. Directions to Revenue Officers regarding Supplementary Survey, Upper Burma.

Issued by the Chief Secretary.

1. The Upper Burma Village Manual. 2. The Lower Burma Village Manual. 3. Rules under the Upper Burma Towns Regulation. 4. Rules under the Lower Burma Towns Act. 5. The Burma Examination Manual. 6. The Shan States Manual. 7. The Kachin Hills Manual. 8. The Chin Hills Regulation Pamphlet.

Issued by the Secretary.

1. The Burma Rules Manual. 2. The Burma Arms Manual. 3. The Burma Municipal Manual. 4. The Upper Burma Municipal Manual. 5. The Indian Christian Marriage Act, and Births, Deaths, and Marriages Registration Act, with Notifications and Orders under the Acts. 6. The Rangoon Port Manual. 7. The Akyab Port Manual. 8. The Bassein Port Manual. 9. The Moulmein Port Manual. 10. The Burma Factories Manual. 11. The Burma Plague Manual. 12. Rules and Notifications under the Inland Steam Vessels Act, etc. 13. The Burma Commercial Marine Rules Manual. 14. The Burma Explosives Manual.

Issued by the Revenue Secretary.

1. The Burma Forest Act Manual. 2. The Land Acquisition Manual. 3. The Burma Ferries Manual. 4. The Cattle Trespass Act Manual. 5. The Burma Boundaries Manual.

In preparing the above list, the Government of Burma appears to have adopted some system of exclusion, for the list does not include all the Manuals issued by the Government. Amongst the Manuals which are excluded from the above list I may mention The Burma Travelling Allowance Manual, The Burma Police Manual, The Burma Treasury Manual, and The Burma Medical Manual.

In addition to the Manuals issued by the Government of Burma there are certain administrative Codes, applicable to Burma, issued by the Government of India, such as the Public Works Department Code and the Civil Account Code.

THE EXECUTIVE OFFICERS OF THE PROVINCE.

The chief executive officers under the Lieutenant-Governor are eight Commissioners of Divisions, four in Upper Burma and four in Lower Burma. The Commissioners are *ex-officio* Sessions Judges* in their several Divisions, and have civil powers under the Lower Burma Courts Act, 1900, and under the Upper Burma Civil Courts Regulations, 1896, and they also have powers as Revenue Officers under the Burma Land and Revenue Act, 1876, and under the Upper Burma Land and Revenue Regulation, 1889. They are responsible to the Lieutenant-Governor, each in his own Division, for the working of every department of the public service, except the Military Department and the branches of the Administration directly under the control of the Supreme Government. Certain of them also supervise certain Shan States adjoining their Divisions, and the Commissioner of Minbu Division superintends the Pakôkku Chin Hills.

Under the Commissioners are thirty-six Deputy Commissioners, including the police officers in charge of the Northern Arakan and Salween districts, who exercise the powers of a Deputy Commissioner. The Deputy Commissioners perform the functions of District Magistrates, District Judges,* Collectors, and Registrars, and the miscellaneous duties which fall to the principal District Officer as the representative of the Government. Subordinate to the Deputy Commissioners are Assistant Commissioners, Extra Assistant Commissioners, and *Myoôks*, who are invested with various magisterial, civil, and revenue powers, and hold charge of the townships, as the units of regular civil and revenue jurisdiction are called, and the subdivisions of districts into which most of these townships are grouped. Among the salaried staff of officials the Township Officers (*Myoôks*) are the ultimate representatives of Government who come into most direct contact with the people.

Finally there are the village headmen, assisted in Lower Burma by *Seeingaungs* (rural policemen in charge of ten houses), and in Upper Burma by village elders variously designated. Similarly, in the towns there are headmen of wards and elders of blocks. The system of revenue collection by village headmen is being steadily developed. The headmen are remunerated by commission on the amount of revenue they collect.

* Some changes have recently been made in the judicial duties of Commissioners and Deputy Commissioners, with a view to reducing the amount of their judicial work.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF A DISTRICT.

The general administration of Burma depends upon the organisation of the district. The unit of administration is the township, and the townships are grouped for convenience into subdivisions of districts. The administrative centre around which the townships and subdivisions cluster is the district headquarters.

The administration of a district is vested in the Deputy Commissioner, whose office is usually divided into six departments,

namely: 1. Judicial; 2. General; 3. Revenue; 4. Land Records; 5. Treasury; and 6. Registration.

The Deputy Commissioner is also responsible for the Police and Forest Departments, but the District Superintendent of Police and the Divisional Forest Officer each has a separate office, and carries on part of his correspondence direct with the head of his department without the intervention of the Deputy Commissioner. The general principles on which their correspondence is conducted are set forth in Appendix G II, of this volume, "Rules for the Conduct and Disposal of Official Correspondence of a District."

The following account of the administrative machinery of a district does not apply to the Forest, Education, Public Works, and Police Departments, which have separate organisations, and will be dealt with in detail in the chapters of this Report relating to those departments.

The Administrative Machinery of a District.

The Judicial and General Departments are directly under the Deputy Commissioner's own control, except in so far as he may be specially authorised to delegate some of his functions to an Assistant or Extra Assistant Commissioner at headquarters. Each of the other departments of the office is in the immediate charge of a subordinate gazetted officer, or *Myoók*, subject to the Deputy Commissioner's supervision; namely, the *Akunwun*, the Superintendent of Land Records, the Treasury Officer, and the Sub-registrar (Lower Burma) or Registering Officer (Upper Burma). The Sub-Registrar at headquarters is usually invested with most of the powers of a Registrar, and as such is commonly styled Joint-Registrar.

The Judicial Department deals solely with forensic business, or, in other words, with the work of the Courts under the superintendence of the Chief Court, Lower Burma, or the Judicial

Commissioner, Upper Burma. All acts of a Magistrate in his judicial capacity under the Code of Criminal Procedure (*e.g.*, inquests) belong to this department. Acts of a Magistrate in his executive capacity (*e.g.*, issue of arms licenses, and confirmation or promotion of Police Officers) belong to the General Department.

The General Department deals with all business which cannot be specifically referred to any other department.

The Revenue Department of a District Office deals with rights over land and the assessment and collection of revenue and other moneys due to Government, but not with agriculture or famine. Agricultural advances belong, however, to the Revenue Department because they have to be recovered, but other matters connected with agriculture belong to the General or to the Land Records Department. The revenue of the District Cess Fund or District Fund belongs to the Revenue Department, but all other matters relating to these funds belong to the General Department.

In settled districts the maintenance of the record-of-rights over land is made over to the Land Records Department, as is also the work of assessment of land revenue, in so far as it is non-contentious, and statistics about crops and agriculture; but all questions that arise relating to rights over land and to assessments are investigated and decided in the Revenue Department, with the assistance of information supplied by the Land Records Department, and the decisions are communicated unofficially to the Land Records Department for incorporation in its records. In districts which are not settled, the functions of the Land Records Department remain with the Revenue Department.

The Treasury Department of the District Office is primarily concerned with the receipt and disbursement of public moneys; but it has duties to perform in regard to the sale of stamps and opium. The duties and responsibilities of the District Officer and of his deputy, the Treasury Officer, in regard to the treasury work of a district are laid down concisely in the following extracts from the Burma Treasury Manual:—

The District Officer is personally responsible to Government for the due accounting of all moneys received and disbursed, for the agreement between the departmental returns and the cash accounts and lists of payments, all of which should go out under his signature, and for the safe custody of cash, notes, stamps, opium, securities, and other Government property. He is bound to satisfy himself by periodical examination, at least once in every two

months for cash, and on the last open day of June, September, December, and March each year for deposits, stamps, opium, securities, and bill forms:—

A. That the actual stock of cash, stamps, opium, and securities is kept under joint lock and key and corresponds with the book balances, and that the Treasurer does not hold a sum larger than is necessary for the convenient transaction of the Government business, and that this sum, together with the value of stamps, opium, etc., in his sole custody, is not larger than the security given by him.

B. That the Deposit Registers are kept up according to the rules prescribed in the Civil Account Code.

C. That the stock of Supply Bill and Remittance Transfer Receipts and similar forms, which are intended for use in monetary transactions, are carefully kept under lock and key by the Treasury Officer, and agree periodically with the balance of such forms on the stock books.

D. He is required to verify, when on tours of inspection, at least once a year, the sub-treasury, subdivisional, and township treasure chest balances of cash and stamps; to see that their accounts are kept up according to the rules prescribed for them; that the daily sheets with vouchers are punctually posted daily, whether there is a mail or not; that the rules laid down for the receipt and payment of money are strictly observed; that no receipt or payment not authorised by the District Officer under those rules is received or paid by the sub-treasury or treasury-chest officers; and that these accounts are promptly incorporated in the headquarters treasury accounts as received.

The Treasury Officer is responsible that every voucher on which he passes an order for payment is complete in every respect, and that there is authority for the payment. He must recover, without entering into any correspondence, all amounts ordered by the Accountant-General to be recovered; he must verify and agree the cash books and balance sheets of Treasurer and Accountant; verify the cash with the Treasurer; see that the entries in the cash book and several registers are supported by proper *chalans* and vouchers; that no item of receipt or payment is left out of the accounts; that the accounts for the Accountant-General are written up daily before the treasury closes, and when they are despatched to that officer, that they are supported by the required schedules and vouchers complete. He must see that the totals of the different schedules agree with their respective entries in the cash account and list of payments, and that all the rules in the Civil Account Code and in this Manual, and the orders received from the Accountant-General by letters, periodical objection statements, or audit memoranda are fully and carefully observed by him and the treasury establishment, and that any departure from them, however trifling, is promptly checked and rectified.

The above description of the Treasury Department of the District Office is confined to the internal treasury mechanism of the district. The relation of the District Treasury to the general financial system of the Province is dealt with in Chapter

XII, "Financial Administration," which should be consulted in connection with the foregoing paragraphs.

The Registration Department of the District Office is confined to administering the Indian Registration Act and the Upper Burma Registration Regulation. The work of this department is largely in the nature of registering such documents as wills, bills of sale, leases, deeds of mortgage, and other documents which ordinarily seek registration in all countries.

CHAPTER VI.

THE CIVIL SERVICE OF BURMA

REFERENCES.

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- Forty-eighth Report of His Majesty's Civil Service Commissioners, with Appendix. British Parliamentary Paper, Cd. 2211 of 1904. pp. xx + 61.
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- The Burma Supplement to the Civil Service Regulations. Rangoon, Govt. Press; 1903, pp. 70.

For further references consult the Bibliographical Appendix.

GENERAL CLASSIFICATION OF THE SERVICE.

With the exception of certain appointments which are noted below, the general administration of Burma is in the hands of officials belonging to one of the following services: (1) The Indian Civil Service; (2) The Provincial Civil Service of Burma; (3) The Subordinate Civil Service of Burma. The exceptions to the above classification are certain appointments in the higher ranks of the service which are filled by officers of the Indian Army or by persons appointed on account of special qualifications, but who are not members of the Indian Civil Service. Of the forty-six appointments of this character recorded in the *Quarterly Civil List for Burma* (corrected to July, 1905), twenty-six were held by officers of the Indian Army, and twenty by other persons.

In addition to the appointments in the general administrative services of Burma there are a large number of appointments in special services, professional services, and technical services, such as the Police, Forest, Education, Medical, Public Works, and Survey Departments. The higher appointments in these departments are usually filled by members of the Imperial Indian Service corresponding with the department concerned, such as the Indian Police Service, the Imperial Forest Service, the Indian Medical Service, and so on. Appointments in this class of services will be dealt with in the chapters of this volume relating to those services.

The higher administrative officers of the Province form a body which is known as the Burma Commission; and, with very few exceptions, members of the Commission are members of the Indian Civil Service or officers of the Indian Army. Whatever appointment a member of the Commission holds, he is graded in the service (with the exception of the Lieutenant-Governor of the Province and the higher judicial officers) as a Commissioner, a Divisional Judge, a Deputy Commissioner, a District Judge, or an Assistant Commissioner. Thus the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records and Agriculture is a Commissioner; the Superintendent and Political Officer, Southern Shan States, is a Deputy Commissioner; the Superintendent, Chin Hills, is an Assistant Commissioner.

According to official data published in 1906 the Burma Commission is made up as follows:—

Composition of the Burma Commission, 1906.

Lieutenant-Governor	1
Chief Judge, Chief Court	1
Judge, Chief Court	1
Judicial Commissioner, Upper Burma	1
Secretaries and Under Secretaries	4
Financial Commissioner	1
Secretary to Financial Commissioner	1
Commissioners	8
Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records	1
Divisional Judges	5
District Judges	8
Deputy Director of Land Records and Agriculture	1
Settlement Officers	4
President, Rangoon Municipality	1
Deputy Commissioners	38
Assistant Commissioners	79
Total	<u>155</u>

Although there is no rule excluding natives from the occupancy of any of the above posts, the Commission as at present constituted is made up entirely of Europeans.

THE INDIAN CIVIL SERVICE: HISTORICAL.

Burma being a non-regulation* Province, the higher administrative and judicial posts are not reserved for members of the Indian Civil Service; and, as has been stated above, officers of the Indian Army and other persons hold high office in the Province. But most of the higher offices are filled by members of the Indian Civil Service; and an account of the Indian Civil Service system finds, therefore, an appropriate place in this volume.

The following account of the Indian Civil Service is adapted, by the permission of the author, from A. Lawrence Lowell's *Colonial Civil Service*. Professor Lowell's book was published in 1900; and I have brought the information up to date by incorporating in this chapter such changes as have taken place since 1900.

*See note, p. 91.

While the East India Company was still in the main a body of merchant adventurers, its servants were appointed like those of other trading companies. The same practice was followed after it became the arbiter over vast territories; and even after it began, in 1772, to assume the direct collection of revenue and the administration of civil justice in Bengal, Behar, and Orissa. Its agents, although really public officials ruling over great multitudes of subjects, were still known by the commercial titles of Writers, Factors, and Junior and Senior Merchants; and they were still selected by the governing body of the Company. A candidate for a writership was first nominated by one of the Directors, was then examined as to his qualifications by the Committee on Accounts, and was then voted upon by ballot.

The first regulation by the English Government of the appointment of Indian officials was made by Pitt's India Act of 1784, which provided that with certain exceptions writers and cadets were to be between the ages of fifteen and eighteen when sent out, and that servants of the Company who had been five years in England were not to be capable of appointment to an Indian post unless they could show that their residence in England was due to ill-health. It provided also for promotion by seniority, and a later Act in 1793 provided for the filling of vacancies, under the rank of Members of Council, by promotion of the civil servants of the Company by seniority. This last provision, though never strictly enforced, remained on the statute book until 1861. The only limits placed on the perfect freedom of the Company in the original selection of its civil servants by the Act of 1793 were that writers on their first appointment must not be less than fifteen nor more than twenty-two years of age, and that the Directors must take oath that they would not take any fee, present, or reward for the nomination of any person to any place in the gift of the Company.

As the commercial affairs of the Company became less important, and the duties of administration became more onerous, it became a matter of pressing necessity to provide some training for the Company's civil servants in order that they might fittingly perform their public duties. The question was taken up by Lord Wellesley, Governor-General of Fort William in Bengal from 1798 to 1805. The plan he proposed was that of a college where all the writers intended for any one of the three Presidencies

The East India Company.

Early Regulation by Statute.

The College at Fort William.

should, before being appointed to active duties, pursue a course including both liberal and Oriental studies. The authorities of the Company in England considered that the proposal involved too much expense and covered too wide a field. It was, therefore, modified by being limited to writers intended for the Presidency of Bengal, and by a considerable reduction in the scope of the education provided, which was confined to the study of law and of Oriental languages. In this restricted form the College of Fort William was maintained for many years; but in 1854, when competitive examinations for the Civil Service of India were introduced, the college was abolished, though examinations in Oriental subjects, without any collegiate life, continued to be held in India until the establishment, in 1866, of a two years' course of special training in England.

Partly as a substitute for Lord Wellesley's plan of a college in India, and partly as ancillary to that college, the Company

The College at
Haileybury.

decided to establish a college for the training of its civil servants in England. This institution, officially called the East India College, but commonly known, from the name of the place, as Haileybury, was established in 1806, in Hertfordshire, about twelve miles from London. It became the regular door of entrance into the East India Civil Service. The scholars were still nominated by the Directors of the East India Company, but instead of an inquiry by a committee into the qualifications of the nominees there was an examination, which in later days at least appears to have afforded a real test of the ability of the candidates. The curriculum of the college included classics, mathematics, law, political economy, and history, among the liberal studies, and of the Oriental studies, which were confined entirely to languages, Sanskrit, Persian, and Hindustani were required, while the other native languages were optional. At first the standard was not very high, but later the students were obliged to reside for two years at the college, and to pass an examination at the end of each term. The great defect of Haileybury, and the one which led to its final abolishment as a place for the training of Indian officials, was that it was governed by the Directors of the East India Company; that is to say, by the same persons who nominated the students who were admitted to it. This led to constant friction, and made it extremely difficult to maintain proper discipline at the college. The Bill to abolish Haileybury was passed by Parliament in 1855, without debate. It must not be forgotten, however, that Haileybury, whatever may have been its defects, produced the bulk of the men who

ruled India during more than half of the nineteenth century. An interesting account of Haileybury will be found in Mr. A. Lawrence Lowell's *Colonial Civil Service*, from the pen of Mr. H. Morse Stephens.

The power of nominating students to enter Haileybury was taken away from the Directors of the East India Company some years before the college was abolished. The East India Company's charter was renewed for the last time in 1853; and it was then enacted by Parliament

**Introduction of the
Principle of Competitive
Examinations.**

that "All Powers, Rights, or Privileges of the Court of Directors of the said Company to nominate Persons to be admitted as Students" should cease; and that, "subject to such Regulations as may be made by the Board of Commissioners for the Affairs of India, any Person being a natural born subject of Her Majesty who may be desirous of being admitted into the said college at Haileybury, shall be admitted to be examined as a Candidate for such admission."

The principle of competitive examination was thus introduced, and, in order to form a plan to carry it into effect, a Commission was appointed, consisting of Lord Macaulay, Lord Ashburton, Dr. Melvill (Principal of Haileybury College), Dr. Jowett (afterwards Master of Balliol College, Oxford), and Mr. John George Shaw Lefevre.

The Report of the Macaulay Commission is one of the most important documents in existence on the subject of Colonial Civil Service, for, although some alterations have been made in the plans suggested by the Commission, the general principles which are laid down in the Report remain at the foundation of the system of recruiting Indian Officials. The Report is printed in full in Appendix C of this volume. Of the three main principles contained in the Report, the first is succinctly stated in the following paragraph:—

**The Report of the
Macaulay Commission.**

It seems to us that it would be a great improvement to allow students to be admitted to the college up to the age of twenty-three, and to fix twenty-five as the latest age at which they can go out to India in the Civil Service. It is undoubtedly desirable that the Civil Servant of the Company should enter on his duties while still young; but it is also desirable that he should have received the best, the most liberal, the most finished education that his native country affords. Such an education has been proved by experience to be the best preparation for every calling which requires the exercise of the higher powers of the mind; nor will it be easy to show that such preparation

is less desirable in the case of a Civil Servant of the East India Company than in the case of a professional man who remains in England. Indeed, in the case of the Civil Servant of the Company, a good general education is even more desirable than in the case of the English professional man; for the duties even of a very young servant of the Company are more important than those which ordinarily fall to the lot of a professional man in England. In England, too, a professional man may, while engaged in active business, continue to improve his mind by means of reading and of conversation. But the servant of the Company is often stationed, during a large part of his life, at a great distance from libraries and from European society, and will therefore find it peculiarly difficult to supply by study in his mature years the deficiencies of his early training.

The change which we propose will have one practical effect to which we attach much importance. We think it desirable that a considerable number of the Civil Servants of the Company should be men who have taken the first degree in arts at Oxford or Cambridge.

The second principle was that the examination should be of such a nature that no man should be deterred from going into it by the necessity of spending time in preparation which would be thrown away in case he were unsuccessful. The language of the Commission is as follows:—

The great majority, and among them many young men of excellent abilities and laudable industry, must be unsuccessful. If, therefore, branches of knowledge specially Oriental should be among the subjects of examination, it is probable that a considerable number of the most hopeful youths in the country will be induced to waste much time, at that period of life at which time is most precious, in studies which will never, in any conceivable case, be of the smallest use to them. We think it most desirable that the examination should be of such a nature that no candidate who may fail shall, to whatever calling he may betake himself, have any reason to regret the time and labour which he spent in preparing himself to be examined.

Nor do we think that we should render any service to India by inducing her future rulers to neglect, in their earlier years, European literature and science, for studies specially Indian. We believe that men who have been engaged, up to one or two and twenty, in studies which have no immediate connection with the business of any profession, and of which the effect is merely to open, to invigorate, and to enrich the mind, will generally be found, in the business of every profession, superior to men who have, at eighteen or nineteen, devoted themselves to the special studies of their calling. The most illustrious English jurists have been men who have never opened a law book till after the close of a distinguished academical career; nor is there any reason to believe that they would have been greater lawyers if they had passed in drawing pleas and conveyances the time which they gave to Thucydides, to Cicero, and to Newton. The duties of a Civil Servant of the East India Company are of so high a nature that in his case it is peculiarly desirable that an ex-

cellent general education, such as may enlarge and strengthen his understanding, should precede the special education which must qualify him to despatch the business of his cutcherry.

In effect, the first two principles laid down by the Commission were that the competitive examination should be such as to require a very high degree of general education, but that it should not be such as to require any special or technical study of India.

In order to carry out these principles, the Report recommended that the examination should not extend to those branches of knowledge which are useful to a servant of the East India Company, but useless, or almost useless, to a person whose life is to be passed in Europe; but should be confined to those branches of knowledge to which it is desirable that English gentlemen who mean to remain at home should pay some attention. With this object the Commissioners recommended that the examination should cover all those subjects, and those alone, which were habitually studied at the universities of the United Kingdom; and in order not to give preference to any one university, or to one part of the Kingdom over another, it was suggested that the examination should cover a large list of subjects, from which the candidate might select those in which he preferred to be examined, each subject to be assigned a maximum mark in proportion to the amount of work required to obtain an acquaintance with it. In order at the same time not to make the examination a premium on knowledge of wide surface and small depth, but to require really profound and accurate acquaintance with a certain number of subjects, the Commission recommended that a candidate should not be credited for taking up a subject in which he was a mere smatterer.

The third principle laid down by the Commission was a corollary from the other two. It was that the successful candidates should be considered to have finished their general education, and that from this time, for a period of not less than one year, nor more than two years, they should give their whole minds to the study in England of their special duties in India. This study was to include the history of India, the general principles of jurisprudence, financial and commercial science, and the vernacular languages of India.

The Report of the Commission, so far as it related to the examination of candidates, was put into effect at once. In 1859 a probational year of study for successful candidates at the competitive examination was instituted; and in 1866 an additional

year of probational study was introduced. At this time the minimum age at which a candidate might enter for the competitive examinations was seventeen, and the maximum age twenty-one.

This system did not prove entirely satisfactory, and after it had been in operation for ten years Lord Salisbury, then the Secretary of State for India, opened an inquiry into the System in 1876. Investigation with a view of determining the nature of possible changes. In the course of this inquiry the fact was developed that, with the minimum age fixed at seventeen and the maximum age at twenty-one, the examination came in the middle of an ordinary university career, and that this had had the effect of greatly reducing the proportion of candidates from the universities. It was further shown that the habit of cramming for the examination under special teachers was on the increase; and that successful candidates spent their two years of probation in London, free from any observation or control, and deprived of the benefit of intimate association with a large number of students such as is found at the universities. The result of the inquiry was that the maximum age was reduced to nineteen, so that successful candidates might easily enter the universities after the examination; and an allowance of £150 a year was granted to successful candidates who would spend their period of probation at a university.

The reduction of the maximum age to nineteen involved changes in the character of the examinations, for it could not be expected that lads of eighteen and nineteen could take an examination which had been framed on an age limit of twenty-three.

Inquiry into the System in 1886. With the lowering of the standard of examination Lord Macaulay's idea that the candidates should have completed a sound general education before they went up for the examination was abandoned. In 1886 a Commission was appointed, with Sir Charles Aitchison as Chairman, with instructions "to devise a scheme which might reasonably be hoped to possess the necessary elements of finality, and to do full justice to the claims of the natives of India to higher employment in the public service." This Commission reported that the limit of nineteen years tended to exclude natives of India from the service, on account of the difficulty of coming to England and getting an education before that time, and they recommended that the maximum limit of twenty-three years should be restored. In regard to raising the age the great majority of Indian Civil Servants agreed with the

Commission; and, although the majority of the Council of India in London were opposed to the change, on the ground that it would cause the successful candidates to go out to India at too late an age, and that it would tend to increase the proportion of natives in the Indian Civil Service to such an extent as to imperil its distinctly English character, the maximum limit of twenty-three was restored, and the general scheme of selection fell again into the lines laid down by the Macaulay Commission.

THE INDIAN CIVIL SERVICE: REGULATIONS IN FORCE IN 1905.

Up to the year 1895 the examination for the Civil Service of India and that for First Class Clerkships in the Home Civil Service were held separately. In that year, however, the two examinations were combined, so that candidates could compete for both positions at the same time; and in 1896 the examination for the Eastern Cadets (that is, the Colonial Civil Service of Ceylon, the Straits Settlements, the Federated Malay States, and Hong Kong) was consolidated with the others.

Any candidate at the open competitive examination may declare before the examination is held whether he wishes to compete for the Civil Service of India, for the Eastern Cadetships, or for the First Class Clerkships in the Home Civil Service, or for each of these services, or for any two of them. A fee of £6 is charged for entrance to the examination.

The regulations in force in 1905 are printed in full in Appendix D of this volume; and it is only necessary here to make a brief reference to them.

The competitive examination is held by the Civil Service Commissioners every year in August in London. Notice is given some months beforehand of the number of posts for which selections will be made; and of these there are about a hundred each year.

In addition to the permanent staff of examiners there is a large staff of specialists who are selected as examiners from year to year. The range of subjects covered by the examinations is very wide; but no one of them is obligatory, and the candidate may take as many as he pleases. To each subject is assigned a maximum mark, adjusted to the supposed difficulty of learning it, and by the scale so fixed the mark of each candidate in that subject is graded. The list of subjects and the maximum marks assigned to each in 1905 appear in the following table:—

LIST OF SUBJECTS FOR THE OPEN COMPETITIVE EXAMINATION FOR THE INDIAN
CIVIL SERVICE HELD IN LONDON IN AUGUST, 1905.

Subject.	Maximum Marks.
English Composition	500
Sanskrit Language and Literature	500
Arabic Language and Literature	500
Greek Language and Literature	750
Latin Language and Literature	750
English Language and Literature	500
French Language and Literature	500
German Language and Literature	500
Mathematics (pure and applied)	900
Advanced Mathematics (pure and applied)	900
Natural Science, <i>i.e.</i> , any number not exceeding three of the following:—	
Chemistry	600
Physics	600
Geology	600
Botany	600
Zoölogy	600
Animal Physiology	600
Greek History (Ancient, including Constitution)	400
Roman History (Ancient, including Constitution)	400
English History	500
General Modern History	500
Logic and Mental Philosophy (Ancient and Modern)	400
Moral Philosophy (Ancient and Modern)	400
Political Economy and Economic History	500
Political Science (including Analytical Jurisprudence, the Early History of Institutions, and Theory of Legislation)	500
Roman Law	500
English Law (any four of the following:—	
1. Law of Contract; 2. Law of Evidence; 3. Law of the Constitution; 4. Criminal Law; 5. Law of Real Property)	500

The following Syllabus shows the extent of the examination in various subjects as laid down for the year 1905. Samples of the examination papers as set at the examination held in August, 1904 (the papers for 1905 were not available at the time this chapter was written) will be found in Appendix D of this volume. The whole of the examination papers for 1904 are to be found in a volume issued by the Civil Service Commission in 1904, and entitled *Concurrent Open Competitive Examinations for the Civil Service of India*,

etc. Regulations, Examination Papers, Table of Marks, etc. The volume is printed by Messrs. Eyre & Spottiswoode, London.

SYLLABUS, SHOWING THE EXTENT OF THE EXAMINATION IN CERTAIN SUBJECTS AT THE OPEN COMPETITION FOR THE CIVIL SERVICE OF INDIA, 1905.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION.—An Essay to be written on one of several subjects specified by the Civil Service Commissioners on their Examination Paper.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.—The Examination will be in two parts. In the one the Candidates will be expected to show a general acquaintance with the course of English Literature as represented (mainly) by the following writers in verse and prose, between the reign of Edward III. and the accession of Queen Victoria:

Verse—Chaucer, Langland, Spenser, Shakespeare, Milton, Dryden, Pope, Gray, Collins, Johnson, Goldsmith, Crabbe, Cowper, Campbell, Wordsworth, Scott, Byron, Coleridge, Shelley, Keats.

Prose—Bacon, Sir Thomas Browne, Milton, Cowley, Bunyan, Dryden, Swift, Defoe, Addison, Johnson, Burke, Scott, Macaulay (Essays and Biographies).

A minute knowledge of the works of these authors will not be looked for in this part of the Examination, which will, however, test how far the Candidates have studied the chief productions of the greatest English writers *in themselves*, and are acquainted with the leading characteristics of their thought and style, and with the place which each of them occupies in the history of English Literature. Candidates will also be expected to show that they have studied in these authors the history of the English Language in respect of its vocabulary, syntax, and prosody.

The other part of the Examination will relate to one of the periods named below, which will follow each other year by year in the order indicated.

- | | |
|--------|---|
| 1. | A.D. 1360 to A.D. 1600 |
| (1904) | [Chaucer to Spenser.] |
| 2. | A.D. 1600 to A.D. 1700 |
| (1905) | [Shakespeare to Dryden.] |
| 3. | A.D. 1700 to A.D. 1800 |
| (1906) | [Pope to Cowper.] |
| 4. | A. D. 1800 to A.D. 1832 |
| (1907) | [Nineteenth Century writers to the death of Scott.] |

The Examination in this part will require from Candidates a more minute acquaintance with the history of the English Language and Literature, as illustrated in the chief works produced in each period, and will be based to a considerable extent, but by no means exclusively, on certain books specified each year by the Commissioners.* The names placed under the dates

* The books for 1905 are:—Shakespeare, *The Tempest, Henry VIII.*; Milton, *Paradise Lost, Comus*; Ben Jonson, *Every Man out of his Humour, Bartholomew Fair*; Massinger, *New Way to pay Old Debts*; Dryden, *Conquest of Granada*; Walton, *Complete Angler, Lives of Dr. J. Donne, etc.*; Fuller, *History of the Worthies of England*; William Browne, *Britannia's Pastorals*; Sir Thomas Browne, *Hydriastaphia, Vulgar Errors*.

are intended to suggest the general character of the literary development of the period, and, consequently, the natural limits of the Examination. All the works of Shakespeare, for example, will be regarded as falling within the period 1600 to 1700; all the works of Swift within the period 1700 to 1800; all the works of Scott and Wordsworth and all the works of Macaulay within the period 1800 to 1832.

FRENCH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.—Translation and Composition. Critical questions on the French Language and Literature. Conversation.

GERMAN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.—Translation and Composition. Critical questions on the German Language and Literature. Conversation.

LATIN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.—Translation from Latin into English, Composition in Prose and Verse, or (as an alternative for Verse Composition) a Latin Essay or Letter. Critical questions on the Latin Language (including questions on Philology) and Literature.

GREEK LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.—Translation from Greek into English, Composition in Prose and Verse, or (as an alternative for Verse Composition) a Greek Dialogue or Oration. Critical questions on the Greek Language (including questions on Philology) and Literature.

SANSKRIT LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.—Translation from Sanskrit into English, and from English into Sanskrit. History of Sanskrit Literature (including knowledge of such Indian History as bears upon the subject); Sanskrit Grammar; Vedic Philology.

ARABIC LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.—Translations as in Sanskrit. History of Arabic Literature (including knowledge of such Arabic History as bears upon the subject); Arabic Grammar; Arabic Prosody.

ENGLISH HISTORY.—General questions on English History from A.D. 800 to A.D. 1848; questions on the Constitutional History of England from A.D. 800 to A.D. 1848.

GENERAL MODERN HISTORY.—Candidates may, at their choice, be examined in any one of the following periods:

1. From the accession of Charlemagne to the Third Crusade.
[A.D. 800 to A.D. 1193.]
2. From the Third Crusade to the Diet of Worms.
[A.D. 1193 to A.D. 1521.]
3. From the Diet of Worms to the death of Louis XIV.
[A.D. 1521 to A.D. 1715.]
4. From the accession of Louis XV. to the French Revolution of 1848.
[A.D. 1715 to A.D. 1848.]

Periods 3 and 4 will include Indian History.

GREEK HISTORY.—Questions on the General History of Greece to the death of Alexander; questions on the Constitutional History of Greece during the same period.

ROMAN HISTORY.—Questions on the General History of Rome to the death of Vespasian; questions on the Constitutional History of Rome during the same period.

In Greek and Roman History candidates will be expected to show a knowledge of the original authorities.

MATHEMATICS.—Algebra, Geometry (Euclid and Geometrical Conic Sections), Plane Trigonometry, Plane Analytical Geometry (less advanced portions), Differential Calculus (Elementary), Integral Calculus (Elementary), Statics, Dynamics of a Particle, Hydrostatics, Geometrical Optics.

Candidates may use the methods of the Differential and Integral Calculus in any other division of the subject, but the questions will be such as can be solved without the aid of these methods.

ADVANCED MATHEMATICS.—Higher Algebra (including Theory of Equations), Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, Differential Calculus, Integral Calculus, Differential Equations, Analytical Geometry (Plane and Solid), Statics including Attractions, Dynamics of a Particle, Rigid Dynamics, Hydrodynamics, the Mathematical Theory of Electricity and Magnetism.

POLITICAL ECONOMY AND ECONOMIC HISTORY.—Candidates will be expected to possess a knowledge of economic theory as treated in the larger text-books; also a knowledge of the existing economic conditions, and of statistical methods as applied to economic inquiries, together with a general knowledge of the history of industry, land tenure and economic legislation in the United Kingdom.

LOGIC AND MENTAL PHILOSOPHY (Ancient and Modern).—Logic will include both Deductive and Inductive Logic. Mental Philosophy will include Psychology and Metaphysics.

POLITICAL SCIENCE.—The Examination will not be confined to Analytical Jurisprudence, Early Institutions, and Theory of Legislation, but may embrace Comparative Politics, the History of Political Theories, &c.

Candidates will be expected to show a knowledge of original authorities.

Of the severity of the examinations Professor Lowell says, in his *Colonial Civil Service*: “The examination papers are such

as might be set, in an American university, for graduation honours or for a Ph.D. But it must be remembered that they are prepared by men who have had nothing to do with the instruction of the candidates, and hence are really more difficult than similar papers, set by a professor to his own students, would be in America. It is all the more important for this reason that the practice should be followed, which ought always to be adopted when testing thorough scholarship, of giving the candidate an option among the questions presented. Except for translations from foreign languages, this is, in fact, done in the case of almost all the papers, the candidate being usually required to answer from one-half to three-fourths of the questions. The marking is distinctly severe, a mark of two-thirds of the maximum being rare.”

The successful candidates at the open competitive examination are kept in England for one year of probationary study.

Final Examination for
Successful Candidates at
the Open Competition.

An allowance of £100 is given to all candidates who pass their probation at one of the universities or colleges which have been approved by the

Secretary of State for India, namely, the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, Edinburgh, St. Andrew's, and Aberdeen; Victoria University, Manchester; University College, London; and King's College, London. At the end of this time they are subjected to what is known as the final examination. In this examination, as in the open competition, the merit of the candidates examined is estimated by marks, which are subject to deduction in the same way as the marks assigned at the open competition.* Successful candidates at the open competition are examined in riding, since it is of great importance that Indian Civil Servants should be able to move freely about their districts independently of wheel transportation. Any candidate who fails to pass the minimum standard for riding is liable to have his name removed from the list of selected candidates. The following are subjects included in the Final Examination:—

SUBJECTS FOR THE FINAL EXAMINATION FOR THE INDIAN CIVIL SERVICE, 1905.

Compulsory:—

	Marks.
Indian Penal Code	400
Code of Criminal Procedure	200
The Indian Evidence Act	200
Indian History	400
The Principal Vernacular Language of the Province to which the Candidate is assigned	400
Riding	200

Optional:—

Hindu and Muhammadan Law	450
† Sanskrit	400
† Arabic	400
Persian	400
Chinese (for Candidates assigned to the Province of Burma only) .	400

After passing the Final Examination, the selected candidate proceeds to India, and reports his arrival to the Government of the Province to which he has been assigned. He is not deemed ready for active duties immediately on his arrival; and in order that he may have some experience of the people, and gain some

* See Appendix D.

† These subjects may not be offered by any Candidate who has offered them in the Open Competition.

insight into the traditions of administration, he is generally considered to be merely in training for the first two years in India.

NEW REGULATIONS TO TAKE EFFECT IN 1906.

In 1903 a Conference was held in London on the subject of the examinations for the Indian Civil Service. The main points discussed were (1) the educational effects produced by the unrestricted choice of subjects allowed to candidates at the open competitive examination, and (2) the changes which might be advantageously made in the scheme in view of the effects produced.

The evidence laid before the Conference showed conclusively that under the machinery of examination then in force the effect of leaving the candidates an unrestricted choice of subjects was to produce an excessive eagerness for marks, which caused many of the candidates to cut short their career at the universities, or to mutilate the established courses of academic study, with a view to making such a combination of subjects in a special course of training as might prove most remunerative in the examination. It was stated that since 1892 the average number of subjects taken by successful candidates had increased from ten to twelve, and that in many cases candidates had offered sixteen or even seventeen subjects.

After careful consideration it was decided that the best way of dealing with the question was to limit the number of subjects to be taken, in such manner that the possible total of marks of all the subjects offered by a candidate should not exceed 6,000, and to readjust the maximum marks for each subject.

The new scheme of marks is given in the following table. Candidates are to be allowed a free choice of subjects from this list, with the proviso that the maximum marks of all the subjects offered by any candidate may not exceed 6,000. Thus a candidate may select four of the Natural Science subjects, with a maximum of 2,400 marks; Political Science, with a maximum of 500 marks; Roman Law, with a maximum of 500 marks; and German, with a maximum of 600 marks; giving a total possible maximum of 6,000. It will be noted that the largest number of subjects that could be offered is eleven, since there are only seven subjects of which the maximum marking is as low as 500, and if these were all taken the greatest number of subjects that could be added would be four of the 600 mark subjects.

TABLE SHOWING THE CHANGES IN THE MAXIMUM MARKS FOR THE OPEN COMPETITIVE EXAMINATION, TO TAKE EFFECT IN 1906.

SUBJECTS OF EXAMINATION.	Maximum 1906.	Maximum 1905.
English Composition	500	500
Sanskrit Language and Literature	600	500
Arabic	600	500
Greek, viz.:—		
Translation 300	900	750
Composition 300		
Literature, &c. 300		
Latin, viz.:—		
Translation 300	900	750
Composition 300		
Literature 300		
English	600	500
Italian	600	—
French	600	500
German	600	500
Mathematics	1,200	900
Advanced Mathematics	1,200	900
Natural Science, i.e., any number not exceeding four of the following:—		
Chemistry 600	2,400	1,800
Physics 600		
Geology 600		
Botany 600		
Zoölogy 600		
Animal Physiology 600		
Greek History (Ancient, including Constitution)	500	400
Roman " " " "	500	400
English History I. A.D. 1485 400	800	500
" " II. A.D. 1485-1848 400		
General Modern History	500	500
Logic and Psychology	600	400
Moral and Metaphysical Philosophy	600	400
Political Economy and Economic History	600	500
Political Science	500	500
Roman Law	500	500
English Law	500	500

The only other change that need be noted is that for 1906, and subsequent years, no person will be deemed qualified to enter the Open Competitive Examination for the Indian Civil Service who shall not satisfy the Civil Service Commissioners that he had attained the age of twenty-two, and had not attained the age of twenty-four on the first day of August of the year in which the examination is held. The age limits for 1905 were twenty-one and twenty-three.

No change is made, under the new Regulations, in the Final Examination of the successful candidates at the Open Competitive Examination.

THE PROVINCIAL CIVIL SERVICE OF BURMA.

The creation of a Provincial Civil Service in the various Provinces of India had its origin in the desire of the Government of India to employ as many natives as possible in the public service, and to appoint them to posts as high as could be safely handed over to them without endangering the general standard of administrative efficiency or threatening the strength and stability of British rule in India.

The history of the matter is briefly as follows. When the Government of India was transferred from the Company to the Crown in 1858, the old system was maintained of having two classes of public servants,—covenanted and uncovenanted. The former was the superior service, and it derived its name from the fact that those who entered it were called upon (as they still are to-day) to enter into a covenant by which they were bound not to trade, not to receive presents, to subscribe towards their pensions, and so on. To the members of the covenanted service were reserved all the more important posts, lower than the rank of Member of Council. This reservation applied only to the Regulation Provinces.*

Although, under all rules framed since 1853 for entrance to the Indian Civil Service, posts in the covenanted service have always been open to competition among all natural-born subjects of the Crown, irrespective of creed or colour, it was found in practice that very few natives of India succeeded in entering the covenanted service.

In 1870 an Act was passed (33 Vict. c. 3) which, after reciting that "it is expedient that additional facilities should be given for the employment of natives of India, of proved merit and ability, in the civil service of Her Majesty in India," authorised the appointment of any native of India to any office, place, or employment in the civil service in India, without reference to any statutory restriction, but subject to rules to be made by the Governor-General in Council. Little was done under this Act until, in 1879, rules were passed under which about one-sixth of the appointments formerly reserved for members of the covenanted service should be thrown open to natives appointed under the Act of 1870. These appointees became

* For definition of Regulation Province see footnote p. 91.

known as "statutory civilians." The rules, however, did not work satisfactorily, and in 1886 a Commission was appointed by the Government of India to inquire into the matter.

In pursuance of the recommendations of this Commission—"The Public Service Commission, 1886-87"—the Indian Civil Service has been divided into two branches: first, an Imperial Service, called the Civil Service of India, recruited by open competition in England; and, second, a Provincial Service, recruited in each of the chief Provinces, under conditions suitable to local circumstances, and consisting almost entirely of natives of the Province. These two branches take the place, substantially, of what used to be known as the covenanted and uncovenanted service, though many posts which were formerly reserved for the covenanted service have now been thrown open to the Provincial service. (See Ilbert, *The Government of India*, pp. 126-128.)

Although, as has been stated above, the reservation of certain offices for members of the covenanted service was confined to the Regulation Provinces, the question of the increased employment of natives arose also in the Non-regulation Provinces. In Burma, therefore, notwithstanding the greater freedom of appointment which exists in a Non-regulation Province, a Provincial Service has been established, composed almost entirely of natives of the Province.

The complete Provincial Civil Service scheme as laid down after the Report of the Public Service Commission, 1886-87, has not been applied to Burma; but the only important difference between the Burma system and that of the Regulation Provinces is that in Burma there is at present no promotion from the Provincial Service to posts of high rank which in the regulation Provinces are listed as open to members of the Indian Civil Service and to officers promoted from the Provincial Civil Service, and that, whereas in the Regulation Provinces Europeans are expressly excluded from the Provincial Civil Service, in Burma no such restriction exists.

In Burma posts in the Provincial Civil Service are not filled under a scheme of competitive examinations, but by the appointment of persons promoted from the Subordinate Civil Service or of persons selected for their fitness for the post to be filled.

In April, 1906, the Provincial Civil Service of Burma was made up as follows: Extra Assistant Commissioners, First Grade, 2; Second Grade, 4; Third Grade, 8; Fourth Grade, 28; Fifth Grade, 28; Sixth Grade, 30.

THE SUBORDINATE CIVIL SERVICE OF BURMA.

The Subordinate Civil Service of Burma is filled almost entirely by natives of the country. The officers of this service are called *Myoók* (literally, "Township Officer"), but they fill other posts than that of Township Officer, for example, posts as Treasury Officers, Subdivisional Officers, Additional Magistrates, and *Akunwun* (head Revenue Officer of a District). The members of the Subordinate Civil Service far outnumber those of the Indian Civil Service and the Provincial Civil Service. In July, 1905, there were less than one hundred members of the Indian Civil Service serving in Burma, less than fifty European members of the Provincial Civil Service, and more than 350 native members of the Subordinate Civil Service. An official of the Subordinate Civil Service may be promoted to the Provincial Civil Service and to any post in the Province which is open to members of the Provincial Civil Service.

The following are the rules, as in force in 1905, for admission to the Subordinate Civil Service of Burma:—

Rules for Admission to the Subordinate Civil Service of Burma.

1. An application for admission to the roll of competitive candidates for appointments in the Subordinate Civil Service shall, as a rule, be made through the Deputy Commissioner of the district to which the applicant belongs, or in which he is serving or living at the time.

Every application shall be accompanied by a medical certificate from a Medical Officer in charge of a civil station testifying to the applicant's physical and constitutional fitness for active work. Applicants must be natives of India, as defined in section 6 of 33 Victoria, Chapter III, or natives of some country immediately contiguous to British India.

2. It will be in the discretion of the Deputy Commissioner to forward such application to the Commissioner of the Division or not. If the Deputy Commissioner refuse the application, the applicant may represent the matter to the Commissioner, whose decision shall be final.

3. If the application be forwarded, a nomination-roll in the form annexed shall be submitted. The Deputy Commissioner shall record a distinct opinion regarding the applicant's qualification for office. No applicant shall be nominated more than once. A certificate signed by the Deputy Commissioner to the effect that the person nominated has not previously been admitted as a candidate shall be submitted with the application.

4. If the Commissioner approve the nomination, he shall forward the papers to the Chief Secretary to the Government of Burma, with a clear expression of opinion respecting the applicant, and with a statement that he is willing to have the candidate, if successful, appointed to be a *Myoók* in the division.

5. Commissioners of Divisions and Heads of Departments may, without any recommendation from the Deputy Commissioner, send to the Chief Secretary to the Government of Burma nominations of candidates who have served directly under their orders, or in respect to whose qualifications they may have had special opportunities of forming an opinion. All such nominations should give the information and be in the form required by Rules 1 and 3.

6. In recommending applicants for the appointment of Myoôk special weight should be given to the following points:—

Good character.

Education and knowledge of English.

Previous good service.

Constitutional and physical fitness for active work.

Hereditary claims.

7. If the Lieutenant-Governor approve the application, the applicant's name will be entered in the roll of competitive candidates, and two copies of the entry will be forwarded to the Commissioner or Head of Department who made the nomination, one to be filed in the office and the other to be given to the candidate.

8. "Candidate" means an applicant for appointment as Myoôk whose name has been entered on the roll of competitive candidates under Rule 7.

"Selected candidate" means a candidate who has been successful in the examination, as provided in Rule 13.

9. No person will be admitted to the roll of competitive candidates who is under 25 or over 30 years of age.

10. An annual examination of candidates shall be held in Rangoon in the month of October under the management of the Educational Syndicate, who will notify in the *Burma Gazette* the time and place of the examination. A list of the successful candidates will be published in the *Burma Gazette*.

A list of the candidates eligible for the ensuing examination will be published in the *Burma Gazette* not later than the 1st August of each year.

Each candidate who proposes to appear for examination must submit his name through the Deputy Commissioner of the district in which he is serving or permanently residing, or through the Head of his department to the Registrar of the Educational Syndicate not later than the 1st September.

11. The number of appointments provisionally thrown open each year to competition will be notified in the *Burma Gazette* not later than the 1st September. A candidate may compete at one or both of the two examinations immediately succeeding the date of his admission to the roll of candidates and no more.

12. On and after January 1st 1892 and to the 31st December 1893 no person shall be nominated as a candidate who has not passed one of the following educational tests:—

(a) Any Indian University examination, or such other examination as may be considered by the Educational Syndicate to be equivalent thereto.

(b) The Seventh Standard examination in Burma.

On and after the 1st January 1894 no person shall be nominated as a candidate who has not passed the F. A.* examination of an Indian University.

Men who are actually in the employment of the Government on the 1st January 1894 may be exempted from the operation of this rule.

13. The subjects of examination will be the following:—

	Marks.
I.—BURMESE.—Reading, handwriting, composition, and conversation	200
II.—ENGLISH.—Reading, handwriting, composition, and conversation	200
III.—LAW.—The Indian Penal Code, the Code of Criminal Procedure, the Burma Land and Revenue Act and Rules, and the Evidence Act	100
IV.—ARITHMETIC	100
V.—SURVEYING	100

Burmese, arithmetic, and surveying will be compulsory, and the remaining subjects will be optional. A candidate, before he is allowed marks in any other subject, must obtain not less than half marks in Burmese and not less than one-third marks in arithmetic and surveying. A deduction of 20 per cent. of the full marks will be made from the marks obtained in every subject but Burmese. In Burmese, if a candidate obtain more than half the marks, all the marks obtained will be credited. In the other subjects only the marks in excess of 20 per cent. of maximum in each will be credited. The aggregate of the marks obtained under this rule will determine the position of the candidate.

14. The papers in Burmese will be of the standard of the Provincial Vernacular IXth standard examination; in English and arithmetic of the Calcutta University Entrance Examination; in Law of the standard of the 1st grade Pleaders' Examination; and in Surveying of the standard of the Subordinate Revenue and Land Records Officers' examination.

15. Ordinarily, when a vacancy occurs in any division, the selected candidate highest on the list will be appointed. If such vacancy be temporary only, and the selected candidate has to vacate the appointment, his name will be retained in its original place on the list.

16. The Lieutenant-Governor reserves to himself the right of appointing any selected candidate, irrespective of his position on the list, or any persons other than the selected candidate should the exigencies of the public service render such a course necessary.

17. Selected candidates will be appointed to be Myoôks, 5th grade, on probation for six months. They will be liable to forfeit their appointments if after a period of three months' training they fail to pass an examination in Land Records work and surveying or if, at the end of six months' training, they are reported by the Deputy Commissioner to be unfit for the charge of a township.

18. Each successful candidate must report himself to the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, in order that he may appear before a Medical Board at

* First Examination in Arts after a college course of two years, the subjects being English, a classical language (Oriental or European), history, mathematics, logic, and, if desired by the student, a branch of natural science.

Rangoon as soon as possible after the result of the examination. No candidate will be considered eligible for an appointment as Myoôk unless the Medical Board certifies that he is constitutionally and physically thoroughly fit for active service.

NOMINATION-ROLL OF CANDIDATE FOR SUBORDINATE CIVIL SERVICE.

Description of Candidate.

Name.....
 Son of.....
 Born at.....on the.....of.....18.....
 Educated at.....
 Personal marks of identity.....
 Relatives in Government service now and their appointments.....
Nominated—
 On the.....of.....19 .., by.....

Qualifications.

Examinations passed.....
 Acquainted with what languages and to what extent.....
 The several situations in which previously employed.....
 Government, Municipal, or private.....
 How employed now.....
 Extract of description of character from service-book.....
 Abstract of testimonials in consecutive order according to date.....
 Substance of medical certificate.....
 Examinations for Government service at which he has appeared and result.....

Remarks and recommendations—

Nominating Officer.

APPOINTMENTS IN THE CLERICAL SERVICE.

In addition to the administrative officials belonging to the three services described above—the Indian Civil Service, the Provincial Civil Service, and the Subordinate Civil Service—the Government of Burma employs a very large number of persons whose duties are of a purely clerical character, involving no administrative responsibility. The following are the rules for appointment in the clerical service as at present in force. They were sanctioned by the Lieutenant-Governor of Burma in June, 1905, and came into force on October 1, 1905.

Rules for the appointment of Clerks in Burma.

1. The following rules shall regulate appointments to clerkships and other similar posts in all civil offices under the Local Government, excepting—

(a) the Accountant-General's office; (b) Treasury offices; (c) Offices pertaining to the Public Works, Post Office (District Post) and Inland Trade Departments; (d) Offices in the Shan States; (e) Offices in the Chin and Kachin Hills; (f) Settlement offices in Upper Burma; (g) Offices in the Mogôk and Mông Mit* subdivisions, under the direct control of the Deputy Commissioner, Ruby Mines district (including the office of the Battalion Commandant, Ruby Mines Military Police Battalion); (h) Any office especially exempted by the Lieutenant-Governor from the operation of these rules.

In making appointments and promotions in the exempted offices preference should be given, other things being equal, to persons who possess the qualifications prescribed by these rules.

2. If any clerk, or apprentice clerk, is found at any time to have been appointed in contravention of these rules, or of the rules in force at the time when he was appointed, he must either be removed from his appointment or the case must be reported for the orders of the Local Government.

3. Clerks, or apprentice clerks, employed in Government offices, other than those to which these rules apply, will not be eligible for transfer, without the sanction of the Lieutenant-Governor, to any office to which these rules apply, unless at the time of transfer they are qualified otherwise than by reason of service in such exempted office.

A.—Unpaid Clerks.

4. No unpaid clerks shall be employed, except—

- (i) apprentice clerks;
- (ii) sons of Government officials attached temporarily to an office for the purpose of acquiring a knowledge of office routine and accounts.

NOTE.—(1) The term 'Government official' here includes Honorary Magistrates and Municipal Commissioners.

(2) Apprentice clerks are Government servants.

(3) Licensed copyists (not being apprentice clerks) are not Government servants.

5. The number of apprentice clerks to be employed in his own office and in offices subordinate to him shall be fixed from time to time by each Commissioner, Divisional Judge and Head of a Department. The number shall be so fixed that an apprentice whose work is approved shall be likely to obtain a continuous appointment within two years at most.

6. No person shall be appointed to be an apprentice clerk unless—

- (a) he is over 18 and under 25 years of age;
- (b) he produces a certificate of having passed the seventh standard examination (Vernacular or Anglo-Vernacular) in Burma, or such other examination as may be considered by the Educational Syndicate to be equivalent or more than equivalent thereto;
- (c) he produces a certificate from his last employer, from the Principal or Head Master of a school, from the Principal of a college or from a gazetted officer to the effect that he is believed to be honest, sober and truthful, and to enjoy good health.

*See note on p. 114.

7. Apprentice clerks shall be appointed by heads of offices subject to the conditions laid down in Rules 5 and 6. No apprentice clerk shall be deemed to have been properly appointed under these rules unless his appointment has been duly recorded in a service-book under the signature of the head of the office in which he is employed.

8. An apprentice clerk shall not be allowed to remain in any office after he has completed two years of apprenticeship unless—

- (i) he is officiating in a paid appointment; or
- (ii) he has officiated in a paid appointment and given satisfaction therein for three months at least and is likely to obtain a paid appointment (officiating or substantive) within three months.

The retention of an apprentice under clause (ii) above shall be reported to the Commissioner, or Divisional Judge, or Head of the Department, who shall pass such orders as he thinks fit.

9. No son of a Government official shall be attached to any office under Rule 4 (ii), except under the order of the head of the office, and in offices under the control of a Deputy Commissioner with the Deputy Commissioner's written sanction.

10. Every apprentice shall be assigned to a particular clerk, who shall be responsible for his instruction. The head of the office shall periodically (at least every three months) test the progress of every apprentice. Apprentices who do not seem likely to become useful clerks shall be discharged.

B.—Paid Clerks.

11. The following persons only may be appointed or promoted to clerkships on pay exceeding Rs. 150 a month:—

- (a) Persons who have passed the F. A. examination of an Indian University or an examination declared by the Educational Syndicate to be equivalent thereto.
- (b) Persons who have been continuously in the service of Government as clerks (whether paid or apprentices) from the 31st December 1891, and who have passed the Clerkship examination held under the rules previously in force or the Seventh Standard examination (Vernacular or Anglo-Vernacular) in Burma, or an examination declared by the Educational Syndicate to be equivalent thereto.
- (c) Persons who have been continuously in the service of Government as paid clerks from the 31st December 1891, and who, on the 1st January 1892, held an appointment the pay of which exceeded Rs. 50.

12. The following persons only may be appointed or promoted to clerkships on pay exceeding Rs. 50, but not exceeding Rs. 150, a month:—

- (a) Persons possessing the qualifications required by Rule 11 for clerkships on pay exceeding Rs. 150.
- (b) Persons who have passed the Clerkship examination held under the rules previously in force or the entrance Examination of an Indian University, or an examination declared by the Educational Syndicate to be equivalent thereto.

- (c) Persons who have been continuously in Government employment either as paid clerks or as apprentices from the 30th June 1901, and who were qualified under the Rules of the 30th July 1898 for clerkships up to Rs. 150 *per mensem* by reason of having passed the seventh standard examination and of having obtained a paid clerkship before the 30th July 1898 or of having served for at least three months as an apprentice before the 1st July 1903.

NOTE.—A person who on the 1st January 1903 held an appointment the pay of which exceeded Rs. 50 may, though admitted on or after the 1st July 1901 as an apprentice or paid clerk, be promoted to an appointment on pay not exceeding Rs. 150 if he has been continuously in the service of Government from a date before the 1st January 1903.

13. The following persons only may be appointed or promoted to clerkships on pay not exceeding Rs. 50:—

- (a) Persons possessing the qualifications required by Rule 12 for clerkships on pay exceeding Rs. 50.
- (b) Persons who have passed the seventh standard, whether Vernacular or Anglo-Vernacular, or an examination declared by the Educational Syndicate to be equivalent thereto.
- (c) Persons who have been continuously in the service of Government as clerks (whether paid or apprentices) from the 31st December 1891.

NOTES TO RULES 11-13.—(a) For the purposes of these rules a progressive pay the mean of which exceeds Rs. 50 or Rs. 150 is a pay exceeding Rs. 50 or Rs. 150, as the case may be.

(b) In applying Rules 11 to 13 the provisions of Rule 3 must be borne in mind.

14. Appointments shall not be made from among apprentices merely on account of seniority. Educational qualifications and personal ability shall be regarded as of superior importance.

15. Heads of offices may appoint, for a period of not more than three months, any person to fill an acting vacancy or for the temporary conduct of the duties of any officer.

16. No permanent appointment or promotion to any paid clerkship in any office to which these rules apply will be accepted by the Audit Department or by the Treasury, unless the first entry of the new name in the pay-bill is supported by copies of the necessary certificates to show that the person appointed or promoted is eligible and was appointed or promoted in accordance with these rules.

DEPARTMENTAL EXAMINATIONS IN BURMA.

In addition to the various examinations which must be taken for entrance into the Indian Civil Service and the Subordinate Civil Service of Burma, there are a number of other examinations which must be passed by Government officials, according to the post occupied.

The following officers are required to pass examinations in the Burmese language. The examinations comprise three tests: the elementary, the lower, and the higher. Examinations in the Burmese Language. With few exceptions any official who fails to pass the lower standard examination is liable to forfeit his appointment; and only such officers as have passed the higher standard examination are eligible for promotion beyond a certain grade.

OFFICERS WHO ARE REQUIRED TO PASS EXAMINATIONS IN THE BURMESE LANGUAGE.

Class I.—Officers of the Commission.

Class II.—Non-Burman Extra Assistant Commissioners, *Myoôks*, Assistant Superintendents of Police, Superintendents of Jails, and Civil Surgeons.

Class III.—Non-Burman Inspectors of Police, Head Constables, Jailers in receipt of Rs. 100 *per mensem* and upwards, Excise Officers in receipt of Rs. 75 *per mensem* and upwards, and Medical Officers other than those in Class II.

Class IV.—Non-Burman Officers of the Education Department.

Class V.—Assistant Conservators of Forests, non-Burman Extra Assistant Conservators of Forests, and Rangers.

Class VI.—Non-Burman Superintendents of Land Records and Probationers of the Land Records Department.

Assistant Commissioners must pass an examination in Civil and Criminal Law, Revenue Laws and Rules, and Treasury Accounts and Procedure. An Assistant Commissioner cannot be promoted beyond the rank of fourth grade till he has passed in Law, Revenue, and Treasury by the higher standard; and an Assistant Commissioner of the fourth grade cannot draw more than Rs. 450 a month till he has passed in Law, Revenue, and Treasury by the lower standard, or more than Rs. 475 a month till he has passed these subjects by the higher standard.

The examination in Criminal Law includes the Criminal Procedure Code, the Indian Penal Code, the Police Act, 1861, and a number of Acts and Regulations applying to Burma. The examination in Civil Law includes the Indian Evidence Act, the Code of Civil Procedure, and a number of Acts and Regulations applying to Burma. The examination in Revenue includes various Acts and Rules relating to the assessment and collection of revenue in Upper and Lower Burma. The examination in

Treasury consists of questions on Treasury Accounts and Procedure set from the Civil Account Code. The examination is the same in each case for the higher and lower grade, the number of marks obtained by the candidate determining whether he has passed the former or the latter.

Myoôks (Township Officers) are subject to the same examinations as Assistant Commissioners; but certain modifications are permitted, such as the exemption of *Myoôks* who are natives of Burma from the language test or from questions in regard to any Act or Rule which has not been translated into Burmese for at least one year prior to the examination.

Assistant Superintendents and Inspectors in the Police Force in Burma must pass, in addition to the language tests, an examination in the Indian Penal Code, the Code of Criminal Procedure, the Police Act of 1861, the Burma Arms Act and

Other Departmental Examinations. Rules, the Indian Evidence Act, the Excise and Opium Acts; and on Departmental Procedure as laid down in the circulars of the Local Government and of the Inspector-General of Police. Assistant Superintendents and Inspectors of Police must also pass, within three years of the date of first appointment in the Department, an examination in colloquial Hindustani; and failure in this involves liability to the forfeiture of an appointment. The necessity for a knowledge of Hindustani on the part of Police Officers arises from the fact that the Police Force of Burma is largely recruited from Indian races speaking Hindustani.

Superintendents and Probationers of the Land Records Department must pass examinations in Acts and Rules relating to Land Revenue and in surveying.

British Officers of the Burma Military Police, as condition precedent to appointment as Commandant, or to the grant of magisterial powers, must pass an examination in Criminal Law and Procedure.

Officials of the Public Works Department must pass an examination in colloquial Burmese, and men in the Military Police of Upper Burma may earn additional pay by passing in colloquial Burmese.

THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF LINGUISTIC STUDIES.

In order to encourage members of the various public services in Burma to undertake special studies in Oriental languages, an elaborate set of rules has been drawn up by the Govern-

ment of Burma, providing for examinations in Urdu, Hindi, Bengali, Uriya, Persian, Arabic, Sanskrit, and Chinese.

Other examinations are held for the Shan and Karen languages, and for high proficiency and degree-of-honour in Burmese.

Candidates who pass these examinations receive a certificate from the examiners (in the degree-of-honour examination the Government of India issues a diploma) and a reward in money, varying from a few hundred rupees to five thousand rupees, according to the language taken and the nature of the test.

The rules relating to these examinations may be found in *Manual of Examination Rules for Government Officers and for Admission to the Government Service in Burma*, 1904. The volume is printed by the Government of Burma.

SYSTEM OF PROMOTION.

Promotion in the Public Service in Burma, as elsewhere in India, is regulated, as regards the less important offices, by seniority tempered by selection, and, as regards the higher offices, by selection tempered by seniority. No precise rules in regard to promotion have ever been laid down.

EMPLOYMENT OF NATIVES IN THE CIVIL SERVICE.

The question of the employment of natives in the public service of tropical and sub-tropical dependencies is one of such vital importance that I may properly reproduce here some portions of a note by Sir Dennis Fitzpatrick, Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab from 1892-97, dealing with the subject. Sir Dennis Fitzpatrick has had a very wide experience of Indian affairs, having served in various capacities in the Punjab, Bengal, the Central Provinces, Mysore, Assam, and Hyderabad. The following passages are written of India generally; but they apply in the main, *mutatis mutandis*, to Burma, and in a broad sense to all tropical dependencies in which the question of a native civil service arises:—

The young men of this country, or at least certain classes of them, display an aptitude which is as creditable to them as it is remarkable, for acquiring knowledge from books and reproducing it at examinations, and it is beyond a doubt that if simultaneous examinations were established in this country and the English and Indian candidates were placed in one list, as proposed,

the great majority of the places would before long fall to the Indians. Further, once the number had increased to any considerable extent, it would begin to increase at an ever-accelerating rate, for we must take men as we find them, and we may be quite sure that, wisely or foolishly, the better class of English candidates would hold back from competing for a service which would consist very largely of Indians.

This, it will no doubt be said, would be all as it should be. If you give Englishmen and Indians an equal chance, and the Indians get the best of it, why shouldn't they? and if Englishmen from prejudice or otherwise do not care to belong to a service composed mainly of Indians, let them keep out of it.

Now, there is no doubt that looking at the question still in the way I have up to this been doing, namely, as a question simply of the fair distribution of a given quantity of loaves and fishes, this argument is perfectly sound and unanswerable. But I need hardly say that it is impossible to treat the question simply as one of the distribution of loaves and fishes. Looked at from that point of view, its importance is, comparatively speaking, extremely trifling.

In his Despatch, No. 3 of the 8th April 1869 the Secretary of State, speaking of the possibility of employing Indians in the higher Offices, wrote: "It should never be forgotten and there should never be any hesitation in laying down the principle that it is one of our first duties towards the people of India to guard the safety of our own dominion." That is, I need not say, true, but it seems to me to be a somewhat inadequate statement of the position. There are, of course, certain moral obligations which are so obvious and so stringent that no question can ever arise regarding them and which in every thing we do in this world must have the first place, but next after them comes the obligation to maintain British rule, inasmuch as it is the condition precedent to the performance of all the other duties we owe to India. It is no doubt possible by an effort of the imagination to conceive a time when India would be able to stand alone, and when it would be our duty to withdraw and allow it to do so; but about such matters it is unnecessary to speculate at this moment. It is enough to say that as things now stand, and as they will stand for any time worth taking into consideration, our first and paramount duty is to maintain British rule in India with a strong hand.

British rule brought this country out of a state of chaos the horrors of which it would be difficult for a stay-at-home resident of Europe in the 19th century adequately to realise, and if the grasp of the British power were relaxed even for a brief period over any part of the country, chaos with all its horrors would come again.

Englishmen, even Englishmen who spend their lives in India, are not given to reflecting much on this; and I doubt whether many natives of the country nowadays think of it, though it was a good deal present to the minds of the people of the Punjab when I first came to India.

As regards the agency available for its [India's] administration, the great bulk of the work is done by the vast body of subordinate officers, almost altogether Indian, receiving salaries which range in some cases as high as Rs. 1,000 per month. These officers have greatly improved of late years,

and many of them are men of ability and eminently worthy of confidence, but the bulk of them require a vigilant eye to supervise them, and a strong hand to keep them up to their work.

For supervision and control as well as for the performance of the more important portions of the actual work, we have to look chiefly to the Covenanted Civil Service. To the members of that service, and in particular to such of them as hold the office of Magistrate and Collector, or Deputy Commissioner, which is the backbone of our local administration, we are compelled by the exigencies of the position to intrust powers far exceeding in extent and variety any powers that would be concentrated in the hands of a single official under any Government in Europe. I may be permitted in this connection to quote the remarks made by Lord Macaulay in the debate in the House of Commons of the 24th of June 1853, on the position of the members of the Civil Service generally, and of the District Officer or Collector in particular. Of the Civil Service generally, he said:—

“There is not a single one of these men upon whose capacity the happiness of a very large number of human beings may not in any situation depend. It is utterly impossible that one-tenth part or one-twentieth part of that service can consist of incapable men without causing great suffering to thousands of individuals.”

Of the Collector or District Officer, he spoke as follows:—

“Some gentlemen seem to imagine, putting the Indian Collector at the very highest, that he is something like a Commissioner of Taxes or Stamps in this country; while the truth is that the Collector of Revenue in many parts of India is the sole consul of a great Province, the district assigned to him being about the size of one of the four provinces of Ireland, and the population therein probably about 1,000,000 of human beings. In all that district there is not a single village—there is not a single hut—in which the difference between a good and a bad Collector may not make the difference between happiness and misery. The difference between a good and a bad Collector to the people in such a district is infinitely greater than the difference between the very best and the very worst Government that we have ever seen or are likely ever to see in England can be to the people here.”

From all this, it will be seen how very high a stamp of man we require for the Covenanted Service. We require a strong man; a man of high courage, both physical and moral; a man of resource, capable of quickly grasping a complicated position and taking the responsibility of acting on his own view of it; a man thoroughly imbued with the spirit of our system and incapable of resorting to un-English methods; and last, not least, a man of perfect impartiality, absolutely unconnected with any sect or faction, and above even a suspicion of a leaning towards either side of a pending controversy.

Now, the question is whether this aggregate of qualities is to be found in Indians to the same extent as it is to be found in Europeans. I am not without hope that it may some day be found possible to answer that question in the affirmative, but truth compels me to say that it is impossible to do so at present. I am anxious to say the best I can for people among whom I have

spent the best part of my life, with whom I have always lived on the most friendly terms, and to whom in many ways I owe much; but it is impossible for me to say that, for the purpose now in question, Indians are equal to Europeans. There are of course a few individual exceptions here and there, but these do not affect the question, which is one between classes taken in the aggregate. Further, there are very wide differences indeed between the various races that make up the immense population of India, much wider differences than are to be found between the nations of Europe, but all those races are essentially Oriental, and Orientals differ from the people of the West, almost as much as the inhabitants on one sphere would differ from those of another.

Observe, I do not say that Europeans, taking them all in all, are superior to Indians, taking them all in all. In some things we are superior to them; in others they are superior to us; and it would be a vain and profitless task to set about determining which is on the whole superior to the other. All I mean to say is that we are of widely different types.

This is a thing which a European coming to India takes a long time to understand properly. On first arrival, if he is a man of generous disposition he feels indignant at the manner in which he finds the people of the country spoken of by some Europeans of longer standing in the country than himself. After a little, when he himself comes in close contact with the people, he is so shocked by much of what he sees that he undergoes a revulsion of feeling, and if you meet him at that stage you will probably find that he displays the very prejudices that so shocked him on his arrival. Meet him again a few years later on and you will find that he has come at last to understand the actual position, to see that he is dealing with people of a wholly different type from himself, who are better than him in some ways, worse than him in other ways, and who cannot be judged by the same standards.

When I speak of Indians or of Orientals generally being of a different moral type from ourselves, I must not be understood as suggesting that they commonly differ from us diametrically on questions of morality; that happens only in the rare cases where some element of religion or superstition comes into play. The difference between them and us to which I refer is commonly one only of degree, that is to say, that social opinion among them insists on certain virtues and condemns the corresponding vices less strongly than social opinion among us, and that similarly social opinion among us insists on certain virtues and condemns the corresponding vices less strongly than social opinion among them; and to apply this to the particular matter before us, what I mean to say is, that social opinion among the people of this country, and even among the better class of them, insists very much less strongly than social opinion among us on those particular qualities that are needed in a man occupying the positions assigned to the Covenanted Civil Service in India.

It may be urged that education would alter that in the individual; and so it would undoubtedly to some extent. The training of a man's intellect does to a certain extent modify his moral nature, and the acquisition of certain sorts of knowledge does the same, though to a less extent; but to sup-

pose that merely by educating an individual in one of our schools or colleges you would produce any deep change in his moral nature seems to me a vain delusion. A man's moral nature is the resultant of the various influences of the society to which he belongs, and while he belongs to that society he can no more emancipate himself from those influences than he could emancipate himself from the force of gravity, or the pressure of the atmosphere, or the other physical conditions of life in this world. No doubt, if an Indian could be sent to Europe as a mere boy and live there for many years, his whole nature would be profoundly changed, but I cannot think that anything short of that would have such an effect.

I desire to repeat before passing from this point that I do not in saying all this mean to assert that Indians are, taking them all in all, worse than Englishmen, but merely that they are still widely different from Englishmen and much less fitted to govern the country as we are bound to govern it. I desire further to repeat that I am not without hope that the day will come when the Indians will be found equal to Englishmen in this particular respect.

It must be remembered that it is not so very long since men holding important offices and standing high in public estimation in England were often lamentably deficient in some of those qualities which we nowadays consider of the first importance in a public servant. The progress of society has altered that in England, and there is no reason why it should not do the same in India; but such changes are slow especially in Eastern countries.

I now pass to another point which seems to me has a very important bearing on the question before us, and that is, that supposing all other differences between Englishmen and Indians out of the question, there is this important difference between their positions in this country, that an Englishman stands absolutely clear of all the sects and factions and quarrels to which I have referred as forming so prominent a feature of Indian life and presenting such formidable difficulties to our administration, while an Indian, unless he has become altogether denationalised, has the greatest difficulty in shaking himself clear of them.

On the other hand, a considerable proportion of the immense mass of petitions which is constantly reaching the Government, and its higher officers, is full of charges or insinuations of partiality against native officers. There are, it is urged, too many Hindu officials in this district, too many Muhammadan officials in that; the Hindus are being ruined by the oppression of a certain Mussalman official, or the Mussalmans are being ruined by the oppressions of a certain Hindu official; so and so is an ardent Arya Samaj man and no one who does not join the Arya Samaj has a chance with him; so and so being a Mussalman has interfered with a certain Hindu sacred place; so and so is filling all subordinate offices with members of his own clique; and so on. Now, it is only just to say that I believe that the more serious of these charges when made against our higher native officials are very much oftener false than true, but at the same time I believe that the strength of prejudice among the people is such that many of these imputations, even when absolutely false, are made with a thorough belief in their truth, and this in itself is a

serious matter from an administrative point of view. Further, I believe that many excellent Hindu and Mussalman officials, though they would not consciously favour members of their own sect, or would not take an active part with that sect in its disputes with a hostile sect, would shrink from taking an active part against their own sect in cases where their duty might require them to do so.

Another point to be remembered is that an official who is a native of the country is naturally apt to become involved in friendships and enmities among the residents of his district, and this is very likely to interfere with the proper discharge of the duties of a district officer. An Englishman is a stronger man and is less apt to be influenced by anything of this sort, but even Englishmen in those few parts of the country where European planters abound, are not altogether safe against it. With native officers who are weaker this is sometimes apt to be a serious drawback.

The only advantage so far as I can see that a native official has over a European lies in his better knowledge of the people. We are, I think, sometimes apt to over-estimate this knowledge. We are apt to think of ourselves as living at one side of a thick *purdah* with all the people of the country, including our native officials, at the other, and to imagine that there is a sort of freemasonry among them all, and that they all understand each other thoroughly. Now, as a matter of fact, owing to differences of religion and caste, the native population is so much split up into sections, divided as it were into water-tight compartments, that this is very far from being the case, and very often when we are inclined to suspect that a native subordinate must have been well acquainted with something that has been going on and has been purposely keeping it to himself, we find that after all he has been as completely ignorant of it as ourselves.

But it may be asked, granting that Indians are less efficient, would it not be a wise policy for us as a foreign Government to employ them more largely, even at some sacrifice of efficiency, with a view to further popularising our administration.

To this I would answer most certainly, yes, if it would really have the effect of further popularising our administration, that is to say, of making our administration more acceptable to the great mass of the people. But that I am perfectly sure it would not.

It is quite true that our Government is a foreign Government, and it is further true that some Englishmen have a domineering way about them which to certain people is far from pleasant. But to the great mass of the people this is of very little importance.

In almost all parts of British India (and it is the same in most of the larger native States) they have for very many generations been under a foreign rule of one sort or another, and the idea of being in any other position, the idea of taking any share in the government of the country, or obtaining any sort of political privileges never enters their heads. So long as we keep our taxes low, maintain order, prevent the strong oppressing the weak, administer justice impartially and, subject to this, leave people as much as possible alone, they will, unless they are stirred up, be quite contented under one rule; and as for the Englishman's domineering manner, it is enough to say that the

people of this country are accustomed to be ruled with a strong hand, and that whatever exception may be taken by more sensitive people to the Englishman's manner, the manner of a Hindu or Muhammadan official to the common people is apt to be a very great deal more unpleasant.

We have, I am happy to say, many Hindu and Muhammadan officials who are, as they deserve to be, highly esteemed by the people and very popular wherever they go; but in all cases so far as my experience goes, when the people express any preference on the ground of race it is in favour of the English officer. They sometimes ask that an English officer should be appointed to a particular place, and they are constantly asking to have their cases transferred to an English officer, but I do not remember any requests to have an Indian appointed instead of an Englishman, or to have a case transferred from an Englishman to an Indian.

The truth is that the substitution of Indian for English officers in the higher posts would be popular only with the advanced Indians who still form, as Lord Dufferin said, but an infinitesimal fraction of the population. It would be popular with them for two reasons. In the first place, they differ from the mass of the people in this that many of them feel keenly being under a foreign yoke. I completely accept their assurance that they entertain no design to subvert British rule; but it is impossible to read their acrimonious attacks upon everything good, bad and indifferent in our administration without seeing that the feeling of many of them is a much deeper one than that of dissatisfaction with particular men or particular measures or even with particular institutions. In this I see nothing to be surprised at; our own feeling in their position would be the same; but what we should remember is that to men entertaining such a feeling the circumstance that the great majority of the higher posts are filled by Englishmen presents itself in the light of a bitter aggravation of the position. Add to this that these advanced Indians are, unlike the mass of the people, over-sensitive to an extreme degree, and that the Englishman, though his intentions may be the best in the world, is, as I have said, sometimes rather a domineering sort of person, and it will be easily understood why the advanced Indians, unlike the mass of the people, would prefer to see fewer Englishmen in the service.

The second reason for their wishing to see Indians substituted for Englishmen in the service is one so very natural that it calls for no elaborate explanation. It is that they expect that the appointments would fall to men of their own class.

SALARIES OF GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS.

The following table shows the pay of the various grades of officials in Burma, as stated in *The Quarterly Civil List for Burma* (corrected to April, 1906). The pay of officials in the special departments, such as the Police, the Public Works, Forests, etc., are given in the chapters of this volume devoted to those departments.

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

PAY OF CIVIL SERVANTS IN BURMA.

(IN RUPEES PER MONTH.)

Official.	Salary.	Official.	Salary.
Lieutenant-Governor * . . .	8,333	District Judges	1,500
Chief Judge	3,750	Extra Assistant Commis-	
Judicial Commissioner . . .	3,500	sioners	
Judge of Chief Court . . .	3,500	1st Grade	800
Financial Commissioner . . .	3,500	2nd Grade	700
Chief Secretary	3,000	3rd Grade	600
Commissioners †	2,750	4th Grade	500
Deputy Commissioners		5th Grade	400
1st Grade	2,250	6th Grade	300
2nd Grade	1,800	<i>Myoōks</i>	
3rd Grade	1,500	1st Grade	250
Assistant Commissioners		2nd Grade	225
1st Grade	1,000	3rd Grade	200
2nd Grade	700	4th Grade	175
3rd Grade	600	4th Grade, Supplementary	150
4th Grade	500	5th Grade	100
Divisional Judges		6th Grade	50
1st Grade	2,500		
2nd Grade	2,250		
3rd Grade	1,800		

Owing to the absence of a certain proportion of the civil servants on leave, a considerable number of officials find themselves

occupying acting appointments. When an Acting Allowances. official of any grade fills an acting appointment of a higher grade than his substantive appointment, he draws what is known as "acting allowance"; that is, a sum of money in addition to the salary attached to his substantive appointment. The sum to be drawn by an official as acting allowance varies with the grade of the appointment. In some cases it is large enough to bring the salary of the acting official up to the same level as that of substantive appointee, in others it still leaves the acting official with a slightly smaller salary than that of substantive appointee. A table setting forth the acting allowances attached to each office is printed in each issue of *The Quarterly Civil List for Burma*, which contains also lists of officials in each Department of the Government with particulars as to their appointments, pay, qualifications, and so on.

* The Lieutenant-Governor draws Rs. 500 a month as entertainment allowance, in addition to his pay.

† Commissioners draw a fixed travelling allowance of Rs. 250 a month in addition to their pay.

In addition to their salaries certain officials are allowed free quarters, or a sum of money in lieu thereof. Certain officials

Other Allowances. are entitled to conveyance allowance, where their duties involve travel. There is also a class of payments known as "local allowances," which are made to officials stationed at the more inaccessible parts of the Province. The local allowance compensates for the increased cost of living in out-of-the-way places, due largely to the cost of transport off the main lines of communication. These allowances are set forth in detail in the *Manual of Appointments and Allowances in Burma*.

PENSIONS OF GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS.

Practically, every person who fills a permanent salaried post under the Government of Burma is entitled, under the prescribed conditions, to a pension, under one name or another (retiring pensions, invalid pensions, etc.).

About two-thirds of the pensions of the various services are paid in England, the charge being wholly met by funds remitted by the Government of India. More than half of the remaining third is paid in India by the Government of India, the remainder being paid from Provincial and Local Revenues. A small proportion of the cost of pensions is recovered by deductions from the monthly pay of officials.

The rules in regard to pensions are laid down with the greatest minuteness in *The Civil Service Regulations relating to Salary, Leave, Pension, and Travelling Allowance*, published by the Government of India, and in *The Burma Supplement to the Civil Service Regulations*, published by the Government of Burma. The Regulations are too long to be reproduced here (including The Burma Supplement, they fill about five hundred closely printed pages), but the following paragraphs show the main lines on which the pension system is laid out, and an abstract of the rules relating to pensions is printed in Appendix H of this volume.

The scheme of pensions here outlined applies to all Government officers other than the following, for whom special pension rules are in force: (1) Judges of the High Courts, (2) Barristers holding certain specified appointments, (3) Members of the Indian Civil Service, (4) Statutory Civil Servants, (5) Ecclesiastical Officers, (6) Civil Engineers and Telegraph Officers, (7) State Railway Establishments, (8) Police Officers drawing less than Rs. 20 a month, (9) Civil Veterinary Department, (10) Burma Military Police.

For all Government officials other than those in the services enumerated in the preceding paragraph, the following general rules apply.

For the purpose of the pension rules, service under the Government is divided into two classes, Inferior Service and Superior Service; and corresponding with these two classes of service are two classes of pension, Inferior Pension and Superior Pension.

Service is counted as Inferior if the pay of the appointment is not in excess of Rs. 10 a month, or if it falls within certain classes of employment of an inferior character, which are enumerated in the Regulations (Messengers, Boatmen, Turnkeys, Money-testers, etc.). All other service is Superior.

Pensions are divided into four classes: (A) Compensation Pensions, (B) Invalid Pensions, (C) Superannuation Pensions, (D) Retiring Pensions. Superior Pensions may be of any one of these four classes: Inferior Pensions can only be of the first or second class.

Compensation Pension is awarded to an officer discharged from the public service because, on a reduction of establishment, his appointment is abolished and other suitable employment cannot be found for him. *Invalid Pension* is awarded, on his retirement from the public service, to an officer who by bodily or mental infirmity is permanently incapacitated for the public service, or for the particular branch of it to which he belongs. *Superannuation Pension* is granted to an officer entitled or compelled, by rule, to retire at a particular age.* *Retiring Pension* is granted to an officer who voluntarily retires after completing thirty years of qualifying Superior Service, or such less time as may for any special class of officers be prescribed.

The amount of a Superior Pension, of any of the four classes named above, is regulated as follows: A. After a service of less than ten years, a gratuity not exceeding (except in special cases, and under the orders of the Government of India) one month's emoluments for each completed year of service. For the purposes of this regulation "emoluments" means the pay and certain allowances (personal allowance, fees, or commission,

* "An officer in Superior service, who has attained the age of 55 years, may be required to retire, unless the Local Government considers him efficient, and permits him to remain in the service. But as the premature retirement of an efficient officer imposes a needless charge upon the State, this rule should be worked with discretion. And in cases in which this rule is enforced, the reasons for enforcing it shall be placed on record by the Local Government or other competent authority." (Sec. 459 (a), *Civil Service Regulations*.)

"An officer in Superior service who has attained the age of 55 years may, at his option, retire on a Superannuation pension." (Sec. 464, *Civil Service Regulations*.)

if received in addition to pay, etc.) which the officer was receiving immediately before his retirement. B. After a service of not less than ten years, a pension is paid, not exceeding the following amounts:—

Years of Completed Service.	Scale of Pension.	Maximum Limit of Pension.
10	10-sixtieths of average emoluments.*	Rs. 2,000 a year.
11	11 " " " "	" 2,200 " "
12	12 " " " "	" 2,400 " "
13	13 " " " "	" 2,600 " "
14	14 " " " "	" 2,800 " "
15	15 " " " "	" 3,000 " "
16	16 " " " "	" 3,200 " "
17	17 " " " "	" 3,400 " "
18	18 " " " "	" 3,600 " "
19	19 " " " "	" 3,800 " "
20	20 " " " "	" 4,000 " "
21	21 " " " "	" 4,200 " "
22	22 " " " "	" 4,400 " "
23	23 " " " "	" 4,600 " "
24	24 " " " "	" 4,800 " "
25	30 " " " "	" 5,000 " "
Over 25 years, the same as for 25 years.		

Inferior pensions are granted, subject to the general conditions laid down in the Civil Service Regulations, in the following manner: A. Compensation or Invalid Gratuity on the following scale:—

Years of Service.	Gratuity.
5, but less than 10	3 months' pay
10 " " " 15	4 " "
15 " " " 20	5 " "
20 " " " 30	6 " "

B. Compensation pension and Invalid pension: after a service of not less than thirty years, half-pay not exceeding four rupees a month. There is no Superannuation or Retiring pension for Inferior service.

* For the purposes of pension the term "average emoluments" means the average, calculated on the last three years of service, of pay, and certain allowances (personal allowance, etc.).

It is not necessary for the purposes of this Report to enter into the details of all the various pension rules in force in the ten services cited on page 163 as being exceptions to the rules just stated. I content myself with giving the special rules relating to members of the Indian Civil Service, for these rules, together with those given above, cover a sufficient number of cases to afford a representative description of pension matters in Burma. Full details of all classes of pensions, and the rules for each class, may be found in the *Civil Service Regulations with Appendices* issued in 1903 by the Finance and Commerce Department of the Government of India, of which an abstract, revised to 1906, is printed in Appendix H of this volume.

The following are the rules for the payment of gratuities or pensions to members of the Indian Civil Service.

Four per cent. is deducted at the time of payment from every officer's pay and from certain of his allowances, as against the gratuity or pension to which he may become entitled.

An officer who has been twenty-five years in the service, counting from the date of his covenant, or from the date of the despatch of the Secretary of State announcing his appointment (whichever may have been earlier), and who has rendered twenty-one years' active service, is entitled, on his resignation of the service being accepted, to an annuity of £1,000.

An officer who, having proceeded to India and made or become liable to any payment on account of the provision for the annuity to which he might become entitled under the above rule, is declared by a medical certificate in due form to be incapacitated for further service and is thereupon permitted to resign the service before he is entitled to such an annuity, is entitled to a gratuity or annuity as follows: (1) If he has been in the service for less than five years, a gratuity of £500. (2) If he has been in the service for five years or more, an annuity of £150 plus £20 for each complete year of service in excess of five, provided that the whole annuity shall not exceed £450.

After thirty-five years' service, counting from the date of his arrival in India, an officer shall not, except for special reasons

and with the sanction of the Secretary of State, retain his office or be appointed to any new office, provided that, if such an officer has held his office for less than five years, he may, for special reasons, with the sanction of the Government of India be permitted to retain his office until he has held it five years.

All covenanted civil servants (except natives of India) who arrived in India in 1881–82, and all officers junior to them, are required to subscribe under the “Indian Civil Service Family Pension Regulations.” These Regulations provide for a monthly subscription the proceeds of which go towards the payment of annual pensions to widows and orphans of members of the Indian Civil Service. This fund provides for various payments in the event of the death of a subscriber, and the object of its creation was to supplement the retirement and annuity pension paid by the Government during the life of members of the service, after their retirement, such pensions being payable only to the officer himself, and not to the widow or children of an officer. The following are the monthly rates of payment as stated in the *Civil Service Regulations*, fourth edition, 1903. They are liable to alteration from time to time by the Secretary of State for India.

For the purposes of these regulations civil servants are classed as follows:—

- Class I. More than 18 years' completed service.
- “ II. From 15 to 18 years' completed service.
- “ III. From 12 to 15 years' completed service.
- “ IV. From 7 to 12 years' completed service.
- “ V. Up to 7 years' completed service.

MONTHLY CONTRIBUTIONS TO BE MADE UNDER THE INDIAN CIVIL SERVICE
FAMILY PENSIONS REGULATIONS.

Class.	Years' Service.	Each Married Subscriber.			Each Unmarried Subscriber or Widower.		
		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
V.	Up to 7	1	13	4	1	5	0
IV.	7 to 12	2	16	8	1	15	0
III.	12 to 15	4	6	8	2	12	0
II.	15 to 18	6	16	8	3	12	0
I.	18 and over	9	13	4	4	15	0
	18 to 23				5	15	0
	23 to 28				7	5	0
	28 till retirement				2	1	8
	After retirement irrespective of class,	4	3	4			

Monthly contribution payable by all classes alike, on the birth of a child, and on entering the service for each child then living, for a son 11s. 5d., for a daughter £1 1s. 3d.

In addition to these monthly payments there are payments known as donations and disparity fines. A donation is a sum

of money paid by a member who enters the service married, who marries or re-marries while in the service. The scale of donations varies with the age of the member, being £60 for a member entering the service married, marrying, or re-marrying at the age of twenty-one, rising by graduated steps to £600 when the age of the member is fifty-six.

A disparity fine is paid if the age of the husband is greater than that of the wife by more than five years. The fine varies with the age of the husband and the amount of disparity, ranging from a fine of £1 in the extreme case of a member of twenty-one years of age who marries a girl of fifteen to £840 in the case of a member of fifty-six years of age who marries a girl of twenty-one.

No insurance fund is established by these Regulations. The contributions are credited and the pensions charged directly to the Indian revenues as civil receipts and charges. The Government of India contributes from its general revenues a certain sum of money each year in order to pay the additional sums shown against "Provided by the Government" in the following tables; but the sum so contributed must not exceed a total of £35,000 per annum, and, if it should appear at any time that this sum is likely to be exceeded, a reduction is made in the Government share of the pension, sufficient to bring the total contribution down to £35,000.

The amounts of the pensions provided are as follows:—

TABLE I.

ANNUAL PENSION TO A WIDOW DURING WIDOWHOOD, ACCORDING TO THE CLASS OF HER HUSBAND AT THE TIME OF HIS DEATH.

	CLASS OF HUSBAND AT DEATH.				
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
	£	£	£	£	£
Provided by Subscriber	300	240	180	140	100
Provided by Government	—	60	120	110	150
Total	300	300	300	250	250

Widows retain half-pension on remarriage, and revert to full rate on second widowhood. Reduction to the half-rate to have effect from the commencement of the quarter following that in which the re-marriage takes place, and the full pension to be restored from the day following the death of the second husband.

TABLE II.

ANNUAL PENSIONS TO THE ORPHAN CHILDREN OF ALL CLASSES ALIKE.

	From Birth till Age of 6 Years.			From Age of 6 till Age of 12 Years.			From Age of 12 till Age of 21 Years for Boys, and for Girls till Marriage.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Provided by Subscriber . . .	18	15	0	37	10	0	75	0	0
Provided by Government . .	6	5	0	12	10	0	25	0	0
Total	25	0	0	50	0	0	100	0	0

The pensions of motherless orphans at all ages will be made up by the Government to £100 from the day following the death of the mother.

On marriage, daughters will be granted a donation of £250, to be provided by the Government.

Annuity holders residing in India may either receive their pensions in Indian currency, at the official rate of exchange, or in England in sterling, but, having once exercised the option, any subsequent change can only be permitted at the commencement of the official year.

The pension of a minor orphan will be paid to his or her mother or other duly appointed or recognised guardian.

LEAVE GRANTED TO GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS.

The rules relating to leave are long and complicated. They are to be found in full in *The Civil Service Regulations with Appendices*, pages 49 to 82. The following abstract will serve to show the general tenor of the rules.

The following rules apply to all officers in Civil employ in Burma, except in so far as they are inconsistent with, or overridden by, the special conditions of leave which obtain in the case of the following classes of officers: Lieutenant Governors and Members of Council; Judges of the High Courts; Barristers holding certain appointments; Statutory Civil Servants; Ecclesiastical Officers; Officers subject to the Military Leave Rules; Civil Veterinary Department; Law Officers; State Railway Establishments; Burma Military Police; and Officers serving under special contracts, in which special leave rules are stated.

Leave of absence cannot be claimed as a right. Nothing in the Regulations must be understood to limit the free discretion

General Rules. of the Government to refuse, or revoke, leave of absence of any description, at any time, according to the exigencies of the public service. The Local Government may refuse to grant the full amount of leave applied for in any case, and should, by the exercise of this power, so regulate the date of an officer's return from leave as to cause as little change as possible in administrative arrangements.

After five years' continuous absence, whether with or without leave, an officer is considered to be out of the Government employ.

Leave is divided into two main classes, Short Leave and Long Leave. Short Leave includes the following kinds of leave, Privilege Leave, Examination Leave, and Hospital Leave, and some minor heads of leave which need not be dealt with here. Long Leave includes Furlough, Special Leave, Subsidiary Leave, and Extraordinary Leave; and special Long Leave Rules are in force for what are known as "Indian Services,"—that is, services in which the appointments are usually held by natives.

With certain exceptions noted in the Regulations the rules for Short Leave apply to all officers in Civil employ, whatever may be the rules to which they are subject in

Short Leave. regard to other leave. *Privilege Leave.* The amount of Privilege Leave earned by an officer is one-eleventh part of the time during which he has been on duty without interruption, but this form of leave cannot accumulate beyond three months' leave due at any time, and all claim to Privilege Leave already earned is forfeited by interruption of service. During absence on Privilege Leave an officer is entitled to a leave allowance equal to the salary of the appointment on which he has a lien.

Examination Leave is granted under varying conditions to officers who wish to spend time in preparation for the higher language examinations open to officers. This form of leave is not available for officers who wish to pass their ordinary departmental examinations. It is confined to those who wish to take the examination for Higher Standard in Arabic, or Higher Proficiency in Arabic or Persian, or Degree of Honour in Arabic or Persian; and the amount of leave varies according to whether the officer does or does not intend to visit Persia, Arabia, etc., for purposes of study. The maximum of Examination Leave is six months.

Hospital Leave is granted to certain public servants, in the

lower ranks of the service, such as Jail Warders, Postmen, Policemen, etc. The amount of leave granted and the amount of leave pay allowed varies in different cases. No explanation is given in the Regulations of this special form of leave; but it would appear that it is a concession made to persons peculiarly liable to find themselves in hospital from injuries received during the performance of their duties.

The rules for Long Leave in the "European Services"—that is, services in which the posts are usually filled by members of the Indian Civil Service or by Europeans of other services—apply to a very large number of officers. The list is too

Long Leave. long to reproduce here, but may be found in Chapter XIII. of the *Civil Service Regulations*. The rules are subject to the general limitation that the aggregate amount of Furlough and Special Leave with allowances admissible to any officer is six years. *Furlough*. The amount of Furlough "earned" by an officer is one-fourth of his Active Service. The amount of Furlough "due" to an officer is the amount which he has "earned," diminished (a) in the case of a member of the Indian Civil Service or a Military officer subject to the Civil Leave Rules, by the Furlough he has enjoyed under these rules; (b) in the case of an officer other than an officer of the Indian Civil Service or the Army, by the Furlough or Special Leave with allowances which he has enjoyed under these rules.

To an officer who has rendered three years' continuous service Furlough for not more than two years may be granted as follows: (a) On medical certificate, unconditionally; (b) Without medical certificate, subject to these provisos (1) that the Furlough be due to him; (2) that he has rendered eight years' Active Service in Civil employ; (3) that a period of not less than eighteen months has elapsed since his last return from Privilege Leave of over six weeks' duration; (4) if a military officer subject to Civil Leave Rules, who has not rendered eight years' Active Service in Civil employ, and (a) if the Furlough for which he applies is his first Furlough—that he has two years' Furlough due to him under the special rules applicable to military officers in Civil employ; or (b) if the Furlough applied for be other than his first Furlough—that he has rendered three years' continuous service since his return from Furlough; (5) that the whole number of officers absent on Furlough and Special Leave does not exceed the limit (if any) appointed by the Government of India.

To an officer who has not rendered three years' continuous

service, Furlough for not more than one year may be granted on medical certificate.

Subject to certain limits, an officer on Furlough is entitled to a leave allowance equal to one-half of his average salary during the three years immediately prior to the commencement of his Furlough.

Special Leave. This is a form of leave which may be applied for on account of urgent private affairs. It may not extend to more than six months, and between one grant of Special Leave and the next grant an officer must render six years' active service.

Subsidiary Leave is the time allowed an officer on his retirement, or on his leaving India on Furlough or Special Leave, for the breaking up of his establishment and for the purpose of reaching his port of embarkation. Subsidiary Leave is also granted to an officer returning from Furlough or Special Leave, for the purpose of reorganising his establishment and travelling from the port of debarkation.

Extraordinary Leave may be granted by a Local Government in a case of extreme necessity if no regular form of Leave is available under the rules.

In the event of an official falling ill and requiring leave on that account at a time when no leave is due to him under the regular rules, he may be granted, if in the "European Services," furlough on medical certificate up to a maximum of three years if he has completed three years' continuous service since his last furlough or since the commencement of his service, and up to one year if he has not done so. Such furlough carries ordinary furlough pay. Any further extension must be Extraordinary Leave without Pay.

Under the "Indian Services Leave Rules" there is a class of Leave designated "Leave on Medical Certificate." It may be granted for three years in all during an officer's service, but not more than two years at any one time, or more than twice out of India.

CHAPTER VII.

THE JUDICIAL ADMINISTRATION OF BURMA

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For further references consult the Bibliographical Appendix.

THE INDIAN CODES.

In order to present a brief general survey of the Judicial Administration of Burma, it is convenient to deal separately with Criminal Law and Civil Law. Practically, the whole criminal law of Burma is contained in the Indian Penal Code, and the criminal procedure in Burma is laid down in the Indian Code of Criminal Procedure. The history of the Indian Penal Code is briefly as follows. When the East India Company's charter was renewed in 1833, it was provided in the Act of Parliament which effected the renewal, that a fourth Member of Council in India should be appointed and that he, in concert with a commission, should prepare a body of law for British India. The appointment fell to Lord Macaulay, and he at once proceeded to the preparation of a Penal Code. This work was completed whilst he was in India, between 1834 and 1838, but the code did not become law until 1860, having in the mean time been examined

and revised by Lord Macaulay's successors. The Penal Code received the assent of the Governor-General in October, 1860, but it did not come into force until January 1, 1862.

Two quotations, from the writings of two eminent lawyers, will serve to show the character of the Indian Penal Code. Sir James Fitzjames Stephen, who was Legal Member of Council in India from 1869 to 1872, says in his monumental work, *A History of the Criminal Law of England*:—

The Indian Penal Code may be described as the criminal law of England freed from all technicalities and superfluities, systematically arranged, and modified in some few particulars (they are surprisingly few) to suit the circumstances of British India. . . . It is practically impossible to misunderstand the Penal Code, and, though it has been in operation for more than twenty years,* and is in daily use in every part of India by all sorts of courts and amongst communities of every degree of civilisation, and has given rise to countless decisions, no obscurity or ambiguity worth speaking of has been discovered in it. . . . Since its enactment it has been substantially the only body of criminal law in force in India, though a few other statutes contain penal provisions on various special subjects. I have already expressed my opinion that the Indian Penal Code has been triumphantly successful. The rigorous administration of justice of which it forms an essential part has beaten down crime throughout the whole of India to such an extent that the greater part of that vast country would compare favourably, as far as the absence of crime goes, with any part of the United Kingdom, except perhaps Ireland in quiet times and apart from political and agrarian offences. Apart from this it has met with another kind of success. Till I had been in India I could not have believed it possible that so extensive a body of law could be made so generally known to all whom it concerned in its minutest details. I do not believe that any English lawyer or judge has anything like so accurate and comprehensive and distinct a knowledge of the criminal law of England as average Indian civilians have of the Penal Code. Nor has all the ingenuity of commentators been able to introduce any serious difficulty into the subject. After twenty years' use it is still true that any one who wants to know what the criminal law of India is has only to read the Penal Code with a common use of memory and attention.†

Dr. Whitley Stokes in his *The Anglo-Indian Codes*, which contains a great deal of valuable and interesting historical and critical material in addition to reprints of the Codes, says:—

Besides repressing the crimes common to all countries, it has abated, if not extirpated, the crimes peculiar to India, such as thuggee, human sacrifices, exposing infants, burning widows, burying lepers alive, gang-robbery, torturing witnesses, etc. Translated into almost all the written languages

* This was written in 1881.

† The above is adapted from the chapter on "Indian Criminal Law" in Volume III. of Sir James Fitzjames Stephen's *A History of the Criminal Law of England*, 3 vols., London, Macmillan, 1883.

of India, it has familiarised the native mind with ideas of justice and humanity, the maintenance of public order and public morality, the rights of the individual to life, health, freedom, honour, and property, the possibility of expressing a law with clearness and authority, and of dealing systematically with a vast and complicated subject.

The Penal Code would have been of little use if it had not been supplemented by a Code of Criminal Procedure, and a

The Code of Criminal Procedure.

Code of Criminal Procedure was accordingly prepared, and came into force on January 1, 1862, at the same time as the

Indian Penal Code. The history of the Code of Criminal Procedure now in force throughout British India is briefly as follows. In 1847 the Indian Law Commissioners were instructed to prepare a scheme of pleading and procedure with forms of indictment adapted to the provisions of the Penal Code as prepared by Lord Macaulay and his assistants between 1834 and 1838. Such a scheme was drafted and submitted in 1848. This draft was examined and considered by a new set of Indian Law Commissioners in 1854. The new Commissioners prepared a draft Code, and this was submitted to Parliament in 1856. It was subsequently passed by the Legislative Council of India in 1861, and came into force on January 1 of the following year. In the following years there were several amending Acts, and in 1872 the original Code and its amending Acts were repealed, and a new Code was passed. Finally, in 1883, all enactments relating to criminal procedure were repealed by a new Code of Criminal Procedure which remained in force until 1898, when the Governor-General in Council passed "An Act to consolidate and amend the law relating to Criminal Procedure." This Act is known as "The Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898," and it regulates criminal procedure throughout practically the whole of British India to-day.

The character and effect of the Code of Criminal Procedure are concisely stated in the following passage from Sir John Strachey's *India: Its Administration and Progress*:—

The Code of Criminal Procedure, which became law in 1861, has been recast and amended from time to time, but in essential respects it has not been much altered. It is in force throughout British India, although a few of its provisions have, in some parts of the country, been modified to meet special requirements. Among all the laws of India there is no one more important than this, which regulates the machinery by which peace and order are maintained, and by which crime is prevented and punished. It describes the constitution of all the criminal courts; it defines the powers which each court

can exercise; it classifies the offences under the Penal Code or other laws which each judge or magistrate can try; it regulates the manner in which police investigations are carried on; the powers of the police to make arrest with or without the warrant of a magistrate; the proceedings to be taken for keeping the peace and for preventing unlawful assemblies; for the removal of public nuisances; the manner in which accused persons are to be brought before the magistrate, in which inquiries and trials are to be held, in which evidence is to be heard and recorded, in which commitments to the superior courts are to be made; it contains rules for the trial of cases by juries and assessors, for the admission of appeals, for the revision of sentences and orders by the superior courts, and for many other matters more or less directly connected with criminal procedure. As Sir James Stephen said in one of his speeches in India, this code is the principal means through which the practical every-day business of governing the empire is carried on. The system which it lays down is complete, efficient, and successful.

The codification of civil law in India has only been carried out in part. This has not been due to lack of appreciation on

Civil Law and Procedure.

the part of Indian administrators of the great advantages which would follow a complete codification of the civil law. The task, however, appears well-nigh impossible. Hindus, Muhammadans, and Buddhists, who taken together form about 95 per cent. of the total population of the Indian Empire, have separate bodies of civil law, of great antiquity, and in most cases well suited to the life and customs of the people. For political reasons, if for no other, it is impossible to interfere with the great mass of native laws dealing with civil matters; and to codify native civil law as it exists would be impossible. Muhammadan law is comparatively uniform throughout India, but Hindu law, which regulates the civil affairs of more than two hundred millions of people, varies greatly in different Provinces, and could not be codified.

But, although complete codification of the civil law has not been practicable in British India, codes have been prepared and have come into force regulating a large number of civil matters. Amongst these may be mentioned the Indian Contract Act, the Negotiable Instruments Act, the Easements Act, and the Specific Relief Act.

What has been found impossible in the case of the substantive law has, however, been accomplished in regard to the adjective

The Code of Civil Procedure.

law, and a Code of Civil Procedure is now in force throughout the whole of India with the exception of some of the "Scheduled Districts." * The history of the Code of Civil Procedure is briefly as follows. Some idea of the confusion which existed in civil

* For the definition of "Scheduled District" see p. 178.

procedure in India even as recently as the middle of the nineteenth century may be gained from the fact that, when the first Code of Civil Procedure was passed in 1859, there were no less than nine different systems of civil procedure simultaneously in force in Bengal alone. The Code of 1859 was prepared by Commissioners appointed for that purpose, but it was found to be defective in form and incomplete, and it was amended from time to time. Finally, in 1882 a new Code of Civil Procedure was passed, embodying all amendments made up to that date, and substituting a clear and methodical arrangement for the somewhat unsatisfactory drafting of the original Code. The Code of Civil Procedure, 1882, has not been changed in any important particular, and it regulates at the present time the procedure of the civil courts throughout practically the whole of British India.

THE LAWS ADMINISTERED BY THE COURTS OF BURMA.

Excluding certain Acts of Parliament, Statutory Rules made under these Acts, and certain Orders in Council, which extend expressly or by implication to British India, the body of law in force in Burma is made up of the following classes of enactments: (1) General Acts passed by the Governor-General in Council, (2) Local Acts passed by the Governor-General in Council, (3) Regulations made for Burma under the Government of India Act, 1870, (4) Acts of the Lieutenant-Governor of Burma in Council, (5) Notifications issued by the Lieutenant-Governor of Burma in regard to the Shan States, the Kachin Hills, and the Chin Hills, (6) Bengal Regulation III. of 1818.

The General Acts of the Governor-General in Council are passed at legislative meetings of the Council, under the authority

of the Government of India Act, 1833, and of subsequent enactments defining the legislative powers of the Governor-General.

These General Acts apply as a rule to the whole of British India, but in some cases the application is limited by the stated exemption of certain portions of the empire from the operation of the Act. Examples of the General Acts are the following: the Indian Penal Code, the Indian Contract Act, and the Code of Criminal Procedure, which apply to the whole of British India; the Specific Relief Act, the Transfer of Property Act, and the Indian Trusts Act, which apply to the whole of British India with the exception of certain areas specified in the Acts.

The Local Acts of the Governor-General in Council are passed at legislative meetings of the Governor-General in Council

Local Acts of the Governor-General in Council.

under the same authority as the General Acts. They differ from the General Acts in this, that they are framed with special reference to some particular part of British India, and have no application elsewhere than in the area specifically stated in the Act. The Local Acts of the Governor-General in Council are intended to provide legislation for such parts of British India as do not possess a local legislature. Thus there have been no Local Acts of the Governor-General in Council applicable to Burma passed since 1898, the year in which Burma was provided with a legislature of its own. Examples of the Local Acts of the Governor-General in Council are the following: the Burma Land and Revenue Act, the Lower Burma Village Act, the Lower Burma Courts Act. Until a territory possesses a legislature of its own, the necessary local legislation is passed by the Governor-General in Council; but, when the territory is provided with its own legislature, that legislature not only passes all new local legislation, but has the power, with the previous consent of the Governor-General, to repeal or amend as to that territory any law or regulation made by any authority in India, subject to the general limitations of powers of local legislatures laid down in the Indian Councils Act of 1861.*

The Regulations made for Burma under the Government of India Act, 1870, apply only to such parts of Burma as have been

Regulations made under the Government of India Act, 1870.

declared to be "scheduled districts"; that is to say, to the more backward and less civilised portions of the Province which have been declared outside the scope of the general laws in force in the Province. These Regulations are drawn up by the Local Government, and forwarded to the Governor-General for his consideration. If they are approved, they become law by publication in the *Gazette* of India and in the local official gazette. Upper Burma, exclusive of the Shan States, is a "scheduled district." This power of making Regulations does not exclude the power of legislation by ordinary means: it supplements that power. Thus the Burma Laws Act, 1898, which declares what legislation is in force in Upper Burma, is an Act passed by the Governor-General in Council, and not a Regulation. Examples of Regulations made under the Government of India

* For the powers of the Local Legislature of Burma see pp. 99-101.

Act, 1870, are the Arakan Hills Civil Justice Regulation, the Upper Burma Towns Regulation, the Upper Burma Registration Regulation.

The Acts of the Lieutenant-Governor of Burma in Council represent the ordinary legislation of the Province passed since 1897, the year in which Burma was raised to the rank of a Province and provided with its own legislature.

Some of these Acts are in force throughout the whole Province: others apply only to one portion of the Province,—that is, to Upper or to Lower Burma. The extent of application is stated in each Act. Examples of Acts of the Lieutenant-Governor of Burma in Council are the Burma Forest Act, the Burma Canal Act, the Burma Fisheries Act, the Rangoon Port Act.

The Notifications issued by the Lieutenant-Governor of Burma in regard to the Shan States, the Kachin Hills, and the Chin

Notifications in regard to the Shan States, the Kachin Hills, and the Chin Hills. Hills, rest upon the authority of three enactments. Those issued in regard to the Shan States are made under the authority conferred by

the Burma Laws Act, 1898 (a Local Act of the Governor-General in Council). These Notifications declare what constitute the Shan States, and apply to the Shan States, with such restrictions and modifications as the Local Government may think fit, such enactments in force in Upper Burma as may be deemed applicable to the Shan States. Such Notifications can only be issued with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council. These Notifications are few in number, the principal one being the Shan States Laws and Criminal Justice Order, 1895, which refers to the extension of laws to, and the administration of criminal justice in the Shan States.

The Notifications in regard to the Kachin Hills are issued under authority conferred by the Kachin Hill Tribes Regulation, 1895 (a Regulation made by the Governor-General under the Government of India Act, 1870), and they are of the same general character as the Notifications issued in regard to the Shan States.

The Notifications in regard to the Chin Hills are issued under the authority conferred by the Chin Hills Regulation, 1896 (a Regulation made by the Governor-General under the Government of India Act, 1870), and they are of the same general

character as the Notifications issued in regard to the Shan States.

Bengal Regulation III. of 1818 relates to the confinement of State prisoners. The object of the Regulation is stated in its Preamble thus: "Whereas reasons of State . . . occasionally render it necessary to place under personal restraint individuals against whom there may not be sufficient ground to institute any judicial proceeding or when such proceedings may not be adapted to the nature of the case, or may for other reasons be unadvisable or improper, . . . and whereas the ends of justice also require that due attention be paid to the health of every State prisoner confined under this Regulation, and that suitable provision be made for his support according to his rank in life, and to his own wants and those of his family, . . . the Vice-President in Council has enacted the following rules." . . . The rules are framed in accordance with the objects stated in the Preamble. The Regulation is declared applicable to Burma in the Burma Laws Act, 1898.

The extent to which native law is administered in the Courts of Burma is laid down in the following subsection of section 13 of the Burma Laws Act, 1898: "(1) Native Law applicable in Certain Civil Suits. Where in any suit or other proceeding in Burma it is necessary for the Court to decide any question regarding succession, inheritance, marriage, or caste, or any religious usage or institution, A. the Buddhist law in cases where the parties are Buddhists, B. the Muhammadan law in cases where the parties are Muhammadans, and C. the Hindu law in cases where the parties are Hindus shall form the rule of decision, except in so far as such law has by enactment been altered or abolished, or is opposed to any custom having the force of law."

The above does not apply to the Shan States.

All the Laws, Regulations, and Notifications in force in Burma (except those passed in England, and except also the General Acts of the Governor-General in Council) are reproduced in full in *The Burma Code*, third edition, Calcutta, Government Press, 1899. Laws, etc., passed since that date may be found in the annual volumes of the *Burma Gazette*. The English legislation applicable to Burma may be found in *The Imperial Statutes Applicable to the Colonies*, by Francis Taylor Pigott, published by W. Clowes, London, 1905; and the General Acts of the Governor-General in Council were published by the Government of India in six volumes in 1898 (covering the years 1834 to 1898);

and annual volumes have been issued, bringing the series down to date.

GENERAL JUDICIAL ORGANISATION OF BURMA.

The highest judicial tribunal in Burma is the Chief Court of Lower Burma, which consists of a Chief Judge and three Judges.

The Chief Court, Lower Burma. The Chief Court was established by the Lower Burma Courts Act, 1900. It is the highest Civil Court of Appeal and the highest Court of Criminal Appeal and Revision for Lower Burma; it is the High Court for the whole of Burma (inclusive of the Shan States) in reference to proceedings against European British subjects and persons jointly charged with European British subjects; it has power, as a Court of Original Jurisdiction, to try European British subjects and persons charged jointly with European British subjects, committed to it for trial by any Magistrate and Justice of the Peace exercising jurisdiction in any part of Burma (inclusive of the Shan States); it is the principal Civil and Criminal Court of Original Jurisdiction for Rangoon Town; and it has powers within Rangoon Town with respect to the persons and property of insolvent debtors and with respect to their creditors. The jurisdiction of the Chief Court may be exercised by a single Judge; but any single Judge and any bench of Judges not being a full bench may refer for the decision of a bench of two Judges or of a full bench any question of law or of custom having the force of law, or of the construction of any document, or of the admissibility of any evidence, arising before the Judge or bench, and shall dispose of the case in accordance with the decision of the bench to which the question has been referred.

An appeal from any decree or order made by a single Judge of the Chief Court may be made, subject to the general law relating to appeals, to a bench of the Chief Court consisting of two other Judges of the Court.

Where there is a difference of opinion among the Judges composing any bench of the Chief Court, the decision is made in accordance with the opinion of the majority of those Judges; and, if there is no majority, and the bench is a full bench, the decision is made in accordance with the opinion of the Senior Judge of the bench, and in other cases the bench before which the difference has arisen refers it to a full bench, and disposes of the case in accordance with the decision of the full bench.

The decision on appeal of the Chief Court, Lower Burma, is final, except that in certain cases (see section 596, Code of Civil Procedure, 1882) an appeal from a civil decree may be made to the King in Council, such appeals being heard by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

The highest Judicial Tribunal in Upper Burma is the Court of the Judicial Commissioner. This Court was established as

a Criminal Court by the Upper
 Court of the Judicial Com- Burma Criminal Justice Regulation,
 missioner, Upper Burma. 1892, and as a Civil Court by the

Upper Burma Civil Courts Regulation, 1896. Both on its Civil and Criminal side and in its appellate and original jurisdiction the Court of the Judicial Commissioner consists of the Judicial Commissioner alone. This Court is, except in regard to criminal charges against European British subjects, the Court of Appeal for Upper Burma both in Civil and Criminal matters; but in civil suits a further appeal may be made to the King in Council, in accordance with the rules laid down in the Code of Civil Procedure, 1882. The Court of the Judicial Commissioner, Upper Burma, is a High Court.

The principal law officers of the Government of Burma are the Government Advocate, the Assistant Government Advocate,

the Assistant Secretary to the Govern-
 Law Officers of the Government of Burma. ment in the Legislative Department,
 an Official Assignee and Receiver, six

Government Prosecutors stationed respectively at Rangoon, Mandalay, Moulmein, Bassein, Akyab, and Pyapón, three Registrars and two Assistant Registrars of Law Courts. It is not necessary for the purposes of this Report to enter into any account of the duties of these officials: they are such as are ordinarily performed by such officials in all countries.

LANGUAGE USED IN THE COURTS OF BURMA.

The Local Government has declared English to be the language of the Chief Court and the Courts in the Rangoon Town Dis-

trict in criminal cases, and Burmese or,
 In Lower Burma. with the permission of the presiding officer,
 English to be the language of all other Courts in Lower Burma
 in criminal cases.

In civil cases Burmese has been declared to be the language of all Courts in Lower Burma, except those which have civil jurisdiction in Rangoon Town.

In Upper Burma in criminal cases Burmese or, with the permission of the presiding officer, English has been declared to be the language of all Courts. In Upper Burma in civil cases Burmese has been declared to be the language of all the Courts.

CRIMINAL COURTS OTHER THAN HIGH COURTS.

The Criminal Courts of Burma are established under the authority of Chapter II. of the Code of Criminal Procedure. They consist of Courts of Session, and Courts of magistrates of the first, second, and third class. The powers of these Courts are as follows:—

A Court of Sessions may pass any sentence authorised by law; but any sentence of death passed by a Sessions Court is subject to confirmation by the High Court.

A Magistrate's Court of the First Class may sentence to imprisonment for a term not exceeding two years, including such solitary confinement as is authorised by law, to a fine not exceeding one thousand rupees, and to whipping.

A Magistrate's Court of the Second Class may sentence to imprisonment for a term not exceeding six months, including such solitary confinement as is authorised by law, to a fine not exceeding two hundred rupees, and to whipping, if specially empowered to do so.

A Magistrate's Court of the Third Class may sentence to imprisonment for a term not exceeding one month and to a fine not exceeding fifty rupees.

In addition to the above there are two classes of magistrates,—Special Magistrates and Honorary Magistrates. The former are appointed by the Local Government, for special purposes, under the authority of section 14 of the Code of Criminal Procedure. The latter are appointed by the Local Government under the authority of sections 12 and 15 of the Code of Criminal Procedure. They may sit singly or as a bench. At any sitting, if a Magistrate of the First Class is present, the bench is invested with the powers of a Magistrate of the First Class: every other bench is invested with the powers of a Magistrate of the Second Class.

The rules in regard to appeals in criminal cases are laid down in Chapter XXXI. of the Code of Criminal Procedure. An appeal may lie on a matter of fact as well as on

Appeals in Criminal Cases. a matter of law, except where the original trial is by jury, in which case an appeal can only lie on a matter of law. Omitting details, the general rule is that an appeal from the decision of a Magistrate of the Second

or Third Class lies to a Magistrate of the First Class, from a Magistrate of the First Class to the Court of Sessions, and from the Court of Sessions to the High Court; that is to say, to the Court of the Judicial Commissioner in Upper Burma and to the Chief Court in Lower Burma.

The rules in regard to reference and revision in criminal cases are laid down in Chapter XXXII. of the Code of Criminal Procedure. The more important rules

**References and Revision
in Criminal Cases.**

are embodied in the following paragraphs, which are a condensation of sections 434-438 of the Code of Criminal Procedure:—

When any person has, in a trial before a Judge of a High Court consisting of more Judges than one and acting in the exercise of its original criminal jurisdiction, been convicted of an offence, the Judge, if he thinks fit, may reserve and refer for the decision of a Court consisting of two or more Judges of such court any question of law which has arisen in the course of the trial of such person, and the determination of which would affect the event of the trial; and the High Court shall have power to review the case, or such part of it as may be necessary, and finally determine such question, and thereupon to alter the sentence passed by the Court of original jurisdiction, and to pass such judgment or order as the High Court thinks fit.

The High Court, or any Court of Sessions, or District Magistrate, or any other magistrate empowered by the Local Government in this behalf, may call for and examine the record of any proceeding before any inferior Criminal Court situate within the local limits of its or his jurisdiction, for the purpose of satisfying itself or himself as to the correctness, legality or propriety of any finding, sentence or order recorded and passed, and as to the regularity of any proceedings of such inferior court.

On examining any record, the High Court or Court of Sessions may direct the District Magistrate to make further inquiry into any complaint which has been dismissed, because in the opinion of the Court of original jurisdiction the Magistrate was of opinion that there were no sufficient grounds for proceeding, or into the case of any accused person who has been discharged.

The Court of Sessions or District Magistrate may, if he or it thinks fit, on examining the record of any proceeding, report for the orders of the High Court the results of such examination, and, when such report contains a recommendation that a sentence be reversed, may order that execution of such sentence be suspended, and if the accused is in confinement that he be released on bail or on his own bond.

The territorial classification of the criminal courts into Sessional Courts, Districts Courts, and so on, is laid down in the Lower Burma Courts Manual, 1905, and in the Upper Burma Courts Manual, 1901. For the purpose of this Report the fol-

lowing classification, taken from the Criminal Justice Report of Burma for 1904, will suffice:—

GRADES OF JUDICIAL OFFICERS OF CRIMINAL COURTS IN BURMA.

GRADES OF OFFICERS.	LOWER BURMA.		UPPER BURMA.	
	European.	Native.	European.	Native.
<i>Officers exercising both original and appellate jurisdiction:</i>				
Chief Court Judges	4	—	—	—
Judicial Commissioner	—	—	1	—
Sessions Judges	5	—	4	—
Additional Sessions Judges	4	—	1	—
District Magistrates	21	—	16	—
First Class Magistrates with appellate powers	6	1	2	—
<i>Officers exercising original jurisdiction only:</i>				
Stipendiary Magistrates, 1st Class	16	88	20	37
Stipendiary Magistrates, 2nd Class	4	44	7	53
Stipendiary Magistrates, 3rd Class	2	30	1	32
Honorary Magistrates, sitting singly	—	—	—	—
Special Magistrates	2	—	10	6
Benches of Honorary Magistrates	—	19	—	4
Total	64	182	62	132 ¹ / ₂

CIVIL COURTS OTHER THAN HIGH COURTS.

In Lower and in Upper Burma there are Small Cause Courts, established under the Provincial Small Cause Courts Act, 1887, empowered to try small causes without appeal.

The other civil courts in Burma, below the rank of High Courts, are of the following classes: (1) Divisional Courts, (2) District Courts, (3) Subdivisional Courts, (4) Township Courts, corresponding with the civil divisions, districts, subdivisions, and townships into which Burma is divided.

The powers assigned to these courts are the following: a Township Court has power to hear and determine any suit or original proceeding of a value not exceeding five hundred rupees; a Subdivisional Court deals with suits and original proceedings of a value not exceeding three thousand rupees; a District Court deals with any suit or original proceeding without restriction as regards the value, but may not deal with proceedings under the Indian Divorce Act, 1869; a Divisional Court has the powers of

a District Court, and in addition may hear and determine any original proceeding under the Indian Divorce Act, 1869.

The law relating to appeals differs slightly in Lower and in Upper Burma. In Lower Burma the appeal is from the Township Court to the District Court, from the Subdivisional Court to the Divisional Court, from the District Court to the Divisional Court, if the suit involves less than five thousand rupees, and to the Chief Court, if the suit involves five thousand rupees or upwards. Under conditions laid down in the Lower Burma Courts Act, 1900, a second appeal lies to the Chief Court from an appellate decree of any Court subordinate thereto.

In Upper Burma the appeal is from the Township and Subdivisional Courts to the District Court; and the appeal from the District Court is to the Divisional Court, if the suit involves less than ten thousand rupees, and to the Court of the Judicial Commissioner, if the suit involves ten thousand rupees or upwards. Under conditions laid down in the Upper Burma Civil Courts Regulation, 1896, a second appeal lies to the Court of the Judicial Commissioner from any decree passed by a Court subordinate thereto. The classification of the powers of officers of Civil Courts in Burma appears in the following table taken from the Reports on Civil Justice in Burma, 1903:—

GRADES OF JUDICIAL OFFICERS OF CIVIL COURTS IN BURMA.

GRADES OF OFFICERS.	LOWER BURMA.		UPPER BURMA.	
	European.	Native.	European.	Native.
<i>Officers exercising both original and appellate jurisdiction:</i>				
Chief Court Judges	4	—	—	—
Judicial Commissioner	—	—	1	—
Divisional Judges	6	—	4	—
District Judges	20	1	16	—
Additional District Judges	6	—	6*	3
<i>Officers exercising original jurisdiction only:</i>				
Additional District Judges	—	1	—	—
Small Cause Court Judges	1	2	1	1
Subdivisional Judges	11	19	16	23
Township Judges	3	98	3	98
Total	51	121	47	125

* Includes four Subdivisional Judges empowered to hear appeals.

ADVOCATES, PLEADERS, AND PETITION-WRITERS.

The Law relating to advocates and pleaders in the Courts of Burma is laid down in the Legal Practitioners Act, 1879, in section 40 of the Lower Burma Courts Act, 1900, and in the Rules printed in Chapter I. of the Lower Burma Courts Manual, 1905, and in Chapter I. of the Upper Burma Courts Manual, 1901.

The Rules in regard to Advocates differ in Lower Burma and Upper Burma. In Lower Burma any person may be admitted, in the discretion of the Judges of the Court, as an Advocate of the Chief Court, provided he has been admitted as a Barrister in England or Ireland, or as a Member of the Faculty of Advocates of the Court of Session of Scotland, and is entitled at the date of his application to practise as such in England, Ireland, or Scotland. An application to be admitted as an advocate must be made by a petition addressed to the Chief Judge and Judges of the Chief Court, signed by the applicant, and presented by the Registrar of the Court.

There are three grades of Pleadors in the Courts of Lower Burma. The Rules for their admission are printed in full in the Lower Burma Courts Manual, 1905, but are too long to reproduce here. The qualifications for admission vary with the grade. For the lowest grade a person of good moral character may be admitted who has passed the examination in Law held by the Educational Syndicate of Burma for third-grade advocates or the examination for third-grade pleaders. For admission to the highest grade the applicant must be a Solicitor of the Supreme Courts of Judicature in England or Ireland, or a Writer to the Signet in Scotland, or a member of the Society of Solicitors practising before the Court Session in Scotland, or must meet certain other requirements of a high standard.

In Upper Burma there are no Pleadors; but there are three grades of Advocates. An Advocate of the First Grade in Upper Burma must be qualified to practise as a Barrister in England or Ireland, or as an Advocate in the Supreme Court of Scotland, or a Solicitor in certain High Courts in the United Kingdom, or as an Attorney in any High Court in India, or as Pleader in certain High Courts in India, or as an Advocate of the First Grade in

Lower Burma, or he must have passed the examination prescribed for Advocates of the First Grade. The qualifications for admission as an Advocate of the Second or Third Grade are less exacting. The lowest qualification is that of having passed within one year of the application for admission as an Advocate of the Third Grade the examination for an Advocate of the Third Grade under the Rules in force in Upper or in Lower Burma.

For the convenience of the poorer class of litigants, who cannot afford to pay the fees of an Advocate or Pleader, licenses are issued by the Courts to Petition-writers who for a small fee draw up a petition for presentation to the

Petition-writers in Lower and Upper Burma. Court. As the institution of Petition-writers is intended to meet the peculiar local conditions of Burma and of other Provinces of India, I give here the more important Rules relating to Petition-writers, as made under the authority of the Lower Burma Courts Act, 1900, and of the Upper Burma Civil Courts Regulation, 1896. The phraseology of the Rules in force in Lower and in Upper Burma differs slightly; but the following represent the substance of the Rules in force in the Lower and in the Upper Province.

ABSTRACT OF RULES RELATING TO PETITION-WRITERS.

No official of any Court and no person employed by any Court, whether as clerk, copyist, or peon, or in any other capacity, shall write petitions.

No person shall write for hire any petition to be presented to any Court unless he (a) is duly licensed under these Rules by the Judge of the District Court of the district wherein he resides, or (b) is a legal practitioner; or (c) is a clerk to a legal practitioner, and writes the petition in the course of such employment.

No Court shall receive or act on any petition presented to it by any person other than a legal practitioner unless such petition is signed by a legal practitioner or is written and signed at the foot (a) by the petitioner himself, or (b) by a friend of the petitioner who has received no hire in respect thereof and who is not a clerk to a legal practitioner, or (c) by a Petition-writer duly licensed under these Rules.

No Petition-writer shall ask or take any fee, contingent or otherwise, beyond the fee indorsed on the petition, and he shall give a receipt for every fee paid.

The Judge of the District Court may, if he thinks fit, from time to time fix the tariff of charges for writing petitions of a simple, ordinary, or routine character, and, where a tariff has been framed, no Petition-writer shall for such petitions ask or accept a fee in excess of the tariff. For writing other

petitions each Petition-writer may make his own terms with the petitioner, provided that they are moderate and reasonable. If any Petition-writer asks or accepts any fee in excess of the tariff or any immoderate or unreasonable fee for a petition of a class for which the tariff does not provide, the Judge may, on complaint by the petitioner, in his discretion, order reduction or return of the fee, or may withdraw the license.

Any person who desires to be licensed as a Petition-writer shall apply by petition to the Judge of the District Court, . . . and shall state the names of the Courts in which he proposes ordinarily to practise. The Judge shall satisfy himself that the applicant is of good character and that he can write in a legible hand in the language of the Court, and that he can express himself in clear, concise language. The Judge may, at his discretion, grant or refuse the license.

LEGAL FEES OF ADVOCATES AND PLEADERS.

The following rules have been made for Lower Burma, under section 27 of the Legal Practitioners Act, 1879, to regulate the sums to be allowed as costs on account of Advocates' and Pleaders' fees. The rules made for Upper Burma are the same, except in one or two small details which do not affect the general character of the rules.

RULES FOR ADVOCATES' AND PLEADERS' FEES.

(1) The sums to be entered in the decrees of the Courts under the denomination of costs, as payable between party and party, on account of fees of advocates or pleaders, shall, unless the Court decrees otherwise in its judgment, be calculated at the following rates:—

If the amount or value of the property, debt or damages claimed—

- (i) Shall not exceed Rs. 5,000, at five per cent. on the amount or value claimed;
- (ii) Shall exceed Rs. 5,000, but not exceed Rs. 20,000, at five per cent. on Rs. 5,000, and two per cent. on the remainder;
- (iii) Shall exceed Rs. 20,000, but not exceed Rs. 50,000, on Rs. 20,000 as above (ii), and one per cent. on the remainder;
- (iv) Shall exceed Rs. 50,000, on Rs. 50,000 as above (iii), and half per cent. on the remainder.

Provided that—

- (a) In no case shall the amount of any fee calculated under this rule exceed Rs. 3,000;
- (b) In cases undefended one-half only of the fee calculated at the above rates shall be allowed;
- (c) The Court may direct that the amount entered as payable on account of fee to—

Rs.

An advocate or a pleader of the first grade shall not be less than 17

A pleader of the second grade shall not be less than 10

A pleader of the third grade shall not be less than 5

(2) In suits where it is *not possible to estimate at a money-value* the subject-matter in dispute, and in *miscellaneous or execution proceedings*, the amount to be awarded on account of the advocate or pleader's fee shall be fixed by the Court at its discretion, but it shall not exceed the scale specified below—

	Rs.
To an advocate or a pleader of the first grade	85
To a pleader of the second grade	50
To a pleader of the third grade	25

Provided that in non-contested execution proceedings the fee shall not exceed—

	Rs.
To an advocate or a pleader of the first grade	10
To a pleader of the second grade	5
To a pleader of the third grade	3

(3) If, in the opinion of the Court, the questions in issue in any case are such that the labour or skill of the advocate or pleader would be inadequately remunerated by a fee fixed under Rule 1 or Rule 2, the Court may, for reasons to be recorded in its judgment, apply, in the place of the scale laid down in Rule 1 or Rule 2, the scale specified below in determining the amount payable on account of the advocate or pleader's fee—

To an advocate or to a pleader of the first grade, any sum between Rs. 170 and Rs. 17.

To a pleader of the second grade, any sum between Rs. 100 and Rs. 10.

To a pleader of the third grade, any sum between Rs. 50 and Rs. 5.

In contested cases in the *Chief Court* the effective final hearing of which occupies more than one full working day, a fee not exceeding Rs. 170, as the Court in its discretion shall direct, shall be payable for each subsequent day after the first. This fee shall be in addition to the fee calculated under Rule 1 or under the first paragraph of this rule.

(4) When the *hearing* of a suit is *adjourned* under section 156 of the Code of Civil Procedure, the Court may include among the costs occasioned by the adjournment, to be paid by the party applying for time, advocate's or pleader's fees at the following scale:—

Any sum not exceeding—

	Rs.
To an advocate or a pleader of the first grade	34
To a pleader of the second grade	20
To a pleader of the third grade	10

(5) In a case where there are *several defendants* not more than one advocate or pleader's fee shall be allowed, except in respect of a separate defence set up by a defendant who has a separate interest.

(6) In cases in the *Chief Court* where the subject-matter of the suit exceeds Rs. 2,000 in value, fees in the discretion of the Court may be allowed for two advocates or pleaders actually employed by a party:

Provided that no fee for a junior advocate or pleader shall be allowed when the advocates or pleaders employed are in partnership with one another.

Where fees are allowed in cases in the *Chief Court* for two advocates or pleaders, a fee of two-thirds of that allowed to the senior according to the scales hereinbefore set forth shall be allowed for the junior, and one consultation fee of Rs. 34 shall be allowed to each advocate or pleader.

(7) The amount to be allowed on account of advocates' or pleaders' fees in *appeals* and *revisions* shall be calculated on the same scale as in original suits, and the principles of the above rules as to original suits shall be applied, as nearly as may be, to appeals.

(8) An advocate or pleader employed in a case before any *Commissioner* or at any *arbitration* conducted under the orders of a Court shall be allowed fees, at the discretion of the Court, not exceeding—

	Rs.	
For an advocate or a pleader of the first grade	51	For the first two hours of each effective sitting.
For a pleader of the second grade	25	
For a pleader of the third grade	10	
For an advocate or a pleader of the first grade	17	For each succeeding hour of each effective sitting.
For a pleader of the second grade	10	
For a pleader of the third grade	5	

(9) For the purposes of these rules the valuation of suits and appeals shall be determined according to the rules laid down in the Court Fees Act.

STATISTICS OF JUDICIAL ADMINISTRATION.

The following tables show the more important facts in regard to the work of the Civil Courts of Upper and Lower Burma during the year 1904. The figures for 1904 are the latest which have been published at the time this chapter goes to press (August, 1906). Detailed statistics of the work of the Civil Courts are given in Appendix I. Reference to Appendix I shows that there has been a steady increase in the number of civil suits instituted in Lower Burma and in Upper Burma.

Out of 72,424 civil suits instituted in Burma during 1904 the number which related to money or movable property amounted to 65,982, suits for immovable property numbered 2,317, and mortgage suits 1,940. Details for several years are given in Appendix I.

WORK OF THE CIVIL COURTS OF BURMA, 1904.

	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Total Burma.
Number of Civil Suits instituted . . .	51,594	20,830	72,424
Value of suits instituted, in Rs. . . .	12,408,375	2,829,233	15,237,608
Number of cases before the Courts			
1. Civil Suits	55,665	22,344	78,009
2. Miscellaneous Cases	7,116	2,591	9,707
Cases pending at the close of year			
1. Civil Suits	4,942	1,167	6,109
2. Miscellaneous Cases	755	182	937
Appeals before Civil Appellate Courts			
1. Appeals from Decrees	3,376	2,128	5,504
2. Miscellaneous Appeals	172	120	292
Appeals pending at close of year			
1. Appeals from Decrees	517	349	866
2. Miscellaneous Appeals	26	9	35

The following table shows the work of the Criminal Courts of Upper and Lower Burma during the year 1904. Further details are given in Appendix I. The condition of crime in the Province is dealt with in Chapter VIII. pp. 216-218, and statistics of crime are given in Appendix J. It is seen by reference to Appendix I that both in regard to the number of cases brought to trial and in regard to the number of persons concerned there has been a steady increase during recent years in the Lower and in the Upper Province.

WORK OF THE CRIMINAL COURTS OF BURMA, 1904.

	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Total Burma.
Number of cases brought to trial . . .	66,437	19,105	85,542
Persons under trial	108,525	37,861	146,386
Persons acquitted or discharged . . .	40,375	13,534	53,909
Persons convicted	63,338	23,134	86,472
Persons died, escaped, or transferred .	580	301	881
Persons under trial at end of year . .	4,232	892	5,124
Number of persons sentenced to			
Death	67	18	85
Transportation	355	60	415
Rigorous imprisonment	10,150	3,071	13,221
Simple imprisonment	245	60	305
Forfeiture of property	1	1	2
Fine	48,449	19,325	67,774
Whipping	2,230	633	2,863
Persons ordered to give security to keep the peace, or for good behaviour .	2,528	579	3,107
Persons imprisoned in default of security for good behaviour	1,457	126	1,583

The following table shows the amount of pay received by the principal judicial and law officers of the Government of Burma. The facts are taken from the *Quarterly Civil List for Burma*, as corrected to January, 1906. A large proportion of the judicial work of the Province is performed by administrative officials who are members of the Civil Service, and draw their pay as administrative and not as judicial officers. Thus all appointments as Divisional and Sessions Judges and as District Judges are reserved for members of the Civil Service or for officers of the Commission. In Subdivisional Courts the Subdivisional Officer is *ex-officio* Subdivisional Judge. In the following table are included only such officials as draw pay as judicial or law officers:—

PAY OF JUDICIAL AND LAW OFFICERS.

Appointment.	Rupees per mensem.	Appointment.	Rupees per mensem.
Chief Judge, Chief Court . .	3,750	Small Cause Courts	
Judge, Chief Court	3,500	Judge, Rangoon	1,560
Judicial Commissioner, Upper Burma	3,500	Additional Judge, Rangoon	630
Government Advocate . .	1,500	Judge, Moulmein	1,500
Assistant Govt. Advocate .	750	Additional Judge, Moulmein	400
Assistant Sec. to Govt. Legislative Dept.	1,000	Judge, Mandalay	1,500
Govt. Prosecutors at Rangoon, Mandalay, Moulmein, Bassein, Akyab, Pyapon	{ Nominal fixed salary and fees	Additional Judge, Mandalay	500
Registrar, Chief Court . .		Township Judges	
Asst. Registrar, Chief Court	700	1st grade	400
Registrar of Court of Judicial Comm., Upper Burma	520	2nd grade	300
		3rd grade	250
		4th grade	200
	300		

JURY TRIALS AND TRIALS WITH THE AID OF ASSESSORS.

The rules in regard to the use of jurors and assessors in criminal trials in Burma are laid down in Chapter XXIII. of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898. With the exception of cases in which the accused is an European or American, for which special rules are laid down,* the following abstract embodies the procedure as to jurors and assessors in criminal cases.

* See pp. 195-197.

Trials before a High Court are by jury; trials before a Court of Session are either by jury or with the aid of assessors. Ex-

Trial by Jury. cept in the cases where the accused is an European or an American there is no jury trial or trial with the aid of assessors in any Court below the rank of a Court of Session.

In trials before High Courts the jury consists of nine persons; and in trials by jury before a Court of Session the jury consists of such uneven number, not being less than three, or more than nine, as the Local Government may direct. In a trial by jury before a Court of Session of a person who is not an European or American, a majority of the jury shall, if the accused so desires, consist of persons who are neither Europeans nor Americans.

There are two classes of jurors,—Common Jurors and Special Jurors, the latter being chosen “by reason of their possessing superior qualifications in respect of property, character, or education.”

The Local Government is invested with the power of declaring that, in the case of any district in which the trial of any offence is to be by jury, the trial shall be by Special Jurors.

The following paragraphs relating to the verdicts of a jury are taken *verbatim* from the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898:

When the jury have considered their verdict the foreman shall inform the Judge what is their verdict, or what is the verdict of a majority.

If the jury are not unanimous, the Judge may require them to retire for further consideration. After such a period as the Judge considers reasonable, the jury may deliver their verdict, although they are not unanimous.

Unless otherwise ordered by the Court, the jury shall return a verdict on all the charges on which the accused is tried, and the Judge may ask them such questions as are necessary to ascertain what their verdict is. Such questions and answers to them shall be recorded.

When by accident or mistake a wrong verdict is delivered, the jury may, before or immediately after it is recorded, amend the verdict, and it shall stand as ultimately amended.

When in a case tried before a High Court the jury are unanimous in their opinion, or when as many as six are of one opinion and the Judge agrees with them, the Judge shall give judgment in accordance with such opinion.

When in any such case the jury are satisfied that they will not be unanimous, but six of them are of one opinion, the foreman shall so inform the Judge. If the Judge disagrees with the majority, he shall at once discharge the jury. If there are not so many as six who agree in opinion, the Judge shall, after the lapse of such time as he thinks reasonable, discharge the jury.

When in a case tried before the Court of Sessions, the Judge does not think it necessary to express disagreement with the verdict of the jurors or of a majority of the jurors, he shall give judgment accordingly.

If the accused is acquitted, the Judge shall record judgment of acquittal. If the accused is convicted, the Judge shall pass sentence on him according to law.

If in any such case the Judge disagrees with the verdict of the jurors, or of a majority of the jurors, on all or any of the charges on which the accused has been tried, and is clearly of opinion that it is necessary for the ends of justice to submit the case to the High Court, he shall submit the case accordingly, recording the grounds of his opinion, and, when the verdict is one of acquittal, stating the offence which he considers to have been committed.

When a trial is to be held by assessors, two or more are chosen, as the Judge thinks fit, from the persons summoned to act as assessors. When, in a case tried with the aid of assessors, the case for the defence and the prosecutor's reply (if any) are concluded, the Court may sum up the evidence for the prosecution and defence, and shall then require each of the assessors to state his opinion orally, and shall record such opinion. The Judge then gives judgment, but in doing so is not bound to conform to the opinions of the assessors.

SPECIAL STATUS OF EUROPEANS AND AMERICANS UNDER THE CRIMINAL LAW.

The substantive criminal law is the same for all classes throughout Burma; but Europeans and Americans are placed under special provisions in regard to the method of procedure.

The question of providing a special form of procedure for Europeans and Americans charged with the commission of criminal offences in British India is one which has given rise to a great deal of discussion. Until 1872 the law was that, except in the most trivial cases, a European British subject could only be tried or punished by one of the High Courts. The definition of "European British Subject" under the Code of Criminal Procedure was "1. Any subject of Her Majesty born, naturalised or domiciled in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland or in any of the European, American or Australasian Colonies or Possessions of Her Majesty, or in the Colony of New Zealand or in the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope or Natal; 2. Any child or grandchild of any such person by legitimate descent." This definition remains the same in the latest edition of the Code of Criminal Procedure.

In 1872 the Code of Criminal Procedure was re-enacted, and it was then provided that European British subjects should be

liable to be tried for any offences by Magistrates of the highest class, who were also Justices of the Peace, and by Judges of Sessions Courts; but it was necessary in each case that the Magistrate or Judge should himself be a European British subject. A Magistrate might pass sentence of imprisonment for three months and fine 1,000 rupees. A Sessions Judge might imprison for one year and inflict a fine. Cases requiring severer punishment were referred to the High Court. In the towns of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay the Presidency Magistrates were Justices of the Peace by virtue of their offices, and, whether they were Europeans or Natives, they could try and punish European British subjects.

Matters remained in this position until 1883, when the Government of India considered that the law regarding jurisdiction over European British subjects required alteration. Some of the Native members of the Covenanted Civil Service had reached a stage when, in the ordinary course of promotion, they would become District Magistrates and Judges in the Courts of Session. Under the Code of Criminal Procedure as it then stood no Native holding one of these offices could try any charge against a European British subject. The Government considered that the law in this respect ought to be altered. It was stated that "the Government of India had decided to settle the question of jurisdiction over European British subjects in such a way as to remove from the Code, at once and completely, every judicial disqualification which is based merely on race distinctions."

This declaration provoked a storm of indignation on the part of the European community throughout India; and the controversy ended in the virtual though not avowed abandonment of the measure proposed by the Government. (See Sir John Strachey, *India: Its Administration and Progress*, pp. 101-104.)

The present status of Europeans and Americans under the Criminal Law in Burma is laid down in Chapter XXXIII. of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, of which the following is a summary:—

<p>No Magistrate, unless he is a Justice of the Peace, and (except in the case of a District Magistrate) unless he is a Magistrate of the first class and an European British subject, may inquire into or try any charge against an European British subject.</p>	<p>No Judge presiding in a Court of Session, except the Sessions Judge, may exercise jurisdiction over an European British subject unless he himself is an European British subject; and, if</p>
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Present Status of

Europeans and Americans.

Magistrate of the first class and an European British subject, may inquire into or try any charge against

he is an Assistant Sessions Judge, unless he has held that office for at least three years and has been specially empowered in this behalf by the Local Government.

No Magistrate other than a District Magistrate may pass any sentence on an European British subject other than imprisonment which may extend to three months or a fine which may extend to one thousand rupees, or both; and a District Magistrate may not pass any such sentence other than imprisonment for a term which may extend to six months or fine which may extend to two thousand rupees, or both.

When an European British subject is accused of an offence before a Magistrate and such offence cannot, in the opinion of the Magistrate, be adequately punished by him, and is not punishable by death or by transportation for life, such Magistrate may, if he thinks that the accused ought to be committed, commit him to the Court of Session. When the offence which appears to have been committed is punishable by death or by transportation for life, the commitment must be to the High Court.

No Court of Session may pass on any European British subject any sentence other than imprisonment which may extend to one year or fine, or both; but, if at any time before signing the judgment the presiding Judge thinks that the offence which appears to be proved cannot be adequately punished by such sentence, he must record his opinion to that effect, and transfer the case to the High Court.

In trials of European British subjects before a High Court or Court of Sessions the accused may demand that not less than half the number of the jury, or of the assessors, as the case may be, shall be Europeans or Americans, or both Europeans and Americans.

In cases where the ordinary procedure before a District Magistrate would be to have the case tried without a jury (such as a summons-case), an European British subject has the right to demand that the trial shall be by jury composed in the manner prescribed in the preceding paragraph. In cases of trials before District Magistrates in which an accused European British subject demands a jury trial, in which there may be undue delay, expense, or inconvenience in securing a jury, the District Magistrate may transfer the case for trial by another Magistrate.

In every case triable by jury or with the aid of assessors, in which an European (not being an European British subject) or an American is the accused person, not less than half the number of jurors or assessors must, if practicable, and if such European or American so claims, be Europeans or Americans.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE POLICE ADMINISTRATION OF BURMA

REFERENCES.

- Report of the Indian Police Commission, 1902-03. Simla, Govt. Press, 1903. Folio. pp. v + 276 + iv.
- Resolution of the Government of India on the Subject of the Report of the Indian Police Commission, 1902-03. Printed in the *Burma Gazette* of April 22, 1905, Part II., pp. 157-183.
- Jenks, Jeremiah W. Report on Certain Economic Questions in the English and Dutch Colonies in the Orient. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1902. pp. x + 176. (pp. 127-135 give a most interesting summary of Police affairs in Burma.)
- The Burma Police Manual, containing Orders and Rules made for the Burma Police with the Sanction of the Lieutenant-Governor of Burma. Compiled by A. St. J. Ingle, Officiating District Superintendent of Police. Second Edition. Rangoon, Govt. Press, 1899. 2 vols. pp. ii + vi + 313 + xlv and 258 + xliii.
- Manual for the Burma Military Police, containing Orders and Rules for the Burma Military Police. Issued with the Sanction of the Lieutenant-Governor of Burma. Compiled by Major H. Parkin, I.S.C., Deputy Inspector-General of Military Police. Rangoon, Govt. Press, 1901. pp. 2 + 127 + xv.
- Report on the Police Administration of Burma. Rangoon, Govt. Press. Annual.
- Report on the Rangoon Town Police of Burma. Rangoon, Govt. Press. Annual.
- Report of the Police Supply and Clothing Department. Rangoon, Govt. Press. Annual.
- The Quarterly Civil List for Burma. No. CXLIII. Corrected up to the 1st of January, 1906. Rangoon, Govt. Press, 1906. pp. viii + 388 + xxxi.

The police force of Burma consists of two distinct bodies:—

(a) Civil Police; | (b) Military Police.

The former are generally natives of Burma, the latter are mainly natives of India or Karens. European Inspectors and Head Constables may be employed under the sanction of the Lieutenant-Governor with either the Military or the Civil Police.

ORGANISATION OF THE CIVIL POLICE.

The Civil Police consists of two parts:—

- (a) the village police; | (b) the district police.

The District Superintendent is, under the control of the Deputy Commissioner, the head of the Civil Police. The special duties of the Civil Police are the investigation and detection of crime and the collection of intelligence.

The village police consists in Lower Burma of persons appointed to be rural policemen under section 3 (4) of the Lower Burma Village Act, and in Upper Burma of persons appointed by the Deputy Commissioner or village headman, under the name of *gaung* or otherwise, to assist the headman in the execution of his duties. The village police form part of the internal mechanism of the village administration; and they are dealt with in Chapter XVIII., "Village Administration in Burma." The present chapter deals with district police and military police.

The district police comprise:—

- (i) District foot police,—for maintenance of the peace and for the prevention, detection, and investigation of crime;
- (ii) Mounted police,—for similar duties and for distant patrols;
- (iii) Dépôt police,—to consist of recruits and of constables drafted in from the various police stations and outposts for instruction in drill, law, and police duties;
- (iv) The cantonment and municipal police,—who are under the control of the District Superintendent of the district in which their work lies;
- (v) The railway police.

The duties of the mounted police are similar to those of the foot police. They are appointed and enrolled under Act V. of 1861. A mounted man can of course patrol far longer distances and is more useful on escort and orderly duty than a foot constable. Each mounted constable is required to provide himself with a pony and Burmese saddle and bridle. He draws Rs. 10 per month from Government for the feed of his pony and upkeep of his saddlery and gear.

The railway police are under the supervision and control of the Assistant District Superintendent in charge, subject to the

control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Civil Police. It is their duty to keep order on the railway premises, to furnish sentries over appointed places, to take up and investigate, in concert and communication with the district police, all cognisable crime committed on the railway premises either by railway servants or by the public, and to watch the movements of suspicious characters travelling by rail and to report their presence immediately to the nearest police station concerned.

The superior officers of the civil police force are:—

- (i) The Inspector-General;
- (ii) Deputy Inspectors-General;
- (iii) The Superintendent of Police Supplies;
- (iv) District Superintendents;
- (v) Assistant District Superintendents, and Probationary Assistant District Superintendents.

The executive officers of constabulary are:—

- (i) Inspectors;
- (ii) Chief Head Constables;
- (iii) Head Constables;
- (iv) Sergeants;
- (v) Constables.

The following table shows the sanctioned strength of the District Police in Burma at the beginning of 1904. The actual strength was about 500 below the sanctioned strength.

STRENGTH OF BURMA CIVIL DISTRICT POLICE, 1904.

Inspector-General	1	Mounted Constables	502
Deputy Inspectors-General	2	Foot Constables	10,733
District Superintendents and Assistant District Superintendents,	91	Water Constables	193
Inspectors	153	Total	13,157
Deputy Inspectors and Sub-inspectors	55	Add	45*
Head Constables and Sergeants . .	1,427	Grand Total	<u>13,202</u>

The police administrative areas are:—

- (i) *The District.*—Under the control and supervision of the District Superintendent, aided by one or more Assistants and Inspectors.
- (ii) *The Subdivision.*—In charge of an Assistant District Superintendent or Inspector.

* Five officers and forty men, paid from funds other than Imperial or Provincial.

- (iii) *The Township*.—In charge of an Inspector or Head Constable.
- (iv) *The Police Station*.—In charge of a Head Constable or Sergeant or other police officer nominated to the charge thereof by competent authority.
- (v) *The Outpost*.—In charge of a Sergeant or first-grade constable, or other police officer nominated by competent authority to be in charge.

The area under the jurisdiction of a township is divided into police-station jurisdictions. The area under the jurisdiction of a police station which has outposts subsidiary to it is subdivided between that station and its outposts. Every station and outpost circle is divided into a certain number of beats; that is to say, into a suitable number of village groups.

Police stations and outposts are armed or unarmed according to local requirements. In such as are armed a guard with a sentry or sentries is maintained. In such as are unarmed no guard or sentry is ordinarily kept up.

APPOINTMENTS AND ENLISTMENTS.

First appointments of Inspectors require the sanction of the Lieutenant-Governor. First or direct appointments of Head Constables require the sanction of the Inspector-General. First or direct appointments of Sergeants require the approval of the Deputy Commissioner.

The appointments of constables are made by the District Superintendent. The Inspector-General may appoint a Head Constable, Sergeant, or constable to any district where a vacancy exists.

No native of Burma is usually appointed to the district police who is under 18 or over 30 years of age, whose height is under 5 feet 3 inches, or whose chest measurement is under 31 inches, and no native of India who is under 18 or over 30 years of age, whose height is under 5 feet 6 inches, or whose chest measurement is under 33 inches. But the Inspector-General or the Deputy Commissioner may, by a special order in each case, and for specific reasons, authorise the enlistment of recruits over the prescribed limit of age or under the prescribed limits of height or chest measurement.

The name of every candidate desirous of enlistment is submitted to the District Superintendent by the officer in charge of the police station in the jurisdiction of which the candidate

resides. It is submitted through the Subdivisional Police Officer. The obverse of the form contains a certificate, to be signed by the officer in charge of the police station and by two headmen, that the candidate is literate (this qualification may occasionally be dispensed with, should it be found impossible to get literate men) and of good moral character. It contains also a descriptive roll of the candidate, who presents this form in person to the District Superintendent. The latter, if satisfied with the candidate's appearance, qualifications, and references, forwards him to the Civil Surgeon for examination as to his bodily fitness for service in the police. Should the certificate of the Civil Surgeon be favourable, the District Superintendent either enlists the candidate at once, if he has a vacancy, or files his petition in a separate file kept for such petitions, and informs the petitioner that he will be duly communicated with on the occurrence of a vacancy or when his turn for employment shall have come round, as the case may be. As a rule, all appointments to the higher classes and grades of executive police officers are made by the promotion of deserving men from the lower classes and grades.

Every recruit, in whatever class employed, remains on probation for six months. This period may, with the sanction of the District Superintendent in the case of constables, and with the sanction of the Inspector-General in other cases, be extended to one year.

If the probationer at the close of the period of probation is pronounced unfit for the police, his services are dispensed with under the orders of the authority which sanctioned his appointment.

Every police officer, on being enlisted, receives a certificate of appointment. This is signed by the Inspector-General or by the Deputy Inspector-General of Civil Police in the case of Inspectors, and by the District Superintendent in the case of officers below that rank.

Certificates of appointment must be carefully preserved. Every man must carry his certificate constantly with him, and be prepared to exhibit it as his warrant of office whenever his authority is called in question. When a constable goes on leave, his certificate of appointment is left behind with his uniform in the storeroom or police station. A certificate ceases to have effect whenever the person named in it ceases for any reason to be a police officer, and it must then be given up to the Subdivisional Police Officer, by whom it is forwarded to the District Superintendent. The following are the general conditions of entering the police force.

I.—Each police officer shall devote his whole time to the police service alone. He shall not take part in any trade or calling whatever unless expressly permitted to do so.

General Conditions of Service. II.—He shall faithfully and honestly use his best abilities to fulfil all his duties as a police officer.

III.—He shall conform himself implicitly to all rules of the service.

IV.—He shall submit to discipline, observe subordination, and promptly obey all lawful orders.

V.—He shall serve and reside wherever he may be directed to serve and reside.

VI.—He shall wear, when on duty, such police dress and accoutrements as may be prescribed for his rank of the service; and shall always be neat and clean in his appearance.

VII.—He shall allow such deductions to be made from his pay and allowances as may be required for kit, quarters, and the like, under the rules of the service.

VIII.—He shall promptly discharge such debts as the District Superintendent may direct him to pay off, and shall not have money transactions with any other police officer, or borrow money from a resident of the district in which he is employed.

IX.—He shall not withdraw from the service without distinct permission, or (in the absence of such permission) without giving two months' previous warning in writing of his intention to do so.

X.—He shall not on any occasion, or under any pretext, directly or indirectly, take or receive any present, gratuity, or fee from any person whatsoever, without the sanction of the Lieutenant-Governor.

XI.—He shall act with respect and deference towards all officers of Government, and with forbearance and civility towards private persons of all ranks. In private life he shall set an example of peaceful behaviour, and shall avoid all partisanship.

XII.—A police officer is liable to immediate removal or dismissal for incompetence, negligence, or misconduct. He may be suspended, reduced, fined, put under stoppages, or otherwise punished for minor offences at the discretion of the District Superintendent.

XIII.—Every article of kit and accoutrements, certificate of appointment, and any quarters which may have been supplied to a police officer at the public cost, should be immediately delivered up or vacated (as the case may be) when he ceases to belong to the force.

In order to instruct the policemen in their duties a training depôt has been established at the headquarters of nearly every district in Burma, and in some cases even at the headquarters of subdivisions. In these depôts are provided courses of preliminary training for all recruits, a certain amount of training for all constables of the lower grades, and likewise training for the head constables, sergeants, and for first-grade constables who seem

Training and
Examinations.

to need such training. The training consists in the first place, for the illiterate constables and the recruits, of reading, writing, and the elementary duties of the constable, with definitions of the most common offences; that is, in reality, of the Indian Criminal Code and the Criminal Procedure Code, and of the laws that deal especially with the constables.

For those who are not familiar with the Burmese language special instruction is given in reading and translating Burmese, and conversation and translation from English into Burmese. The examinations in the vernacular are quite rigid in their nature, and an Assistant District Superintendent will not receive any grade promotion until he has passed in the Burmese language by the lower standard, while, if he fails to pass this test within three years from the date of his first appointment, he shall be liable to forfeit that appointment. The inspectors or head constables will receive no promotion until they have passed in the Burmese language in the elementary standard, and they are liable to forfeit their appointments if they fail to pass within two years. Others who are not natives of Burma, but who pass examinations in the Burmese language which it is not compulsory for them to pass, receive rewards in cash as high as 100 or 200 rupees.

In addition to school instruction there is ample provision made for instruction in the regular duties of policemen so far as drill is concerned, practice in musketry, in bayonet exercise, etc.

Enlistments and promotions in the rank of constable are made by the District Superintendent; promotion above the rank of constable and below the rank of head constable by the District Superintendent, subject to the approval of the Deputy Commissioner; to and in the rank of head constable by the Inspector-General on the recommendation of the District Superintendent and the Deputy Commissioner; and above the rank of head constable by the Inspector-General, subject to the Lieutenant-Governor's approval. No head constable who has less than one year's service may be promoted to officiate as an Inspector without a reference to the Lieutenant-Governor; subject to this proviso the promotion of head constables to officiate as Inspectors rests in the hands of the Inspector-General.

Inspectors are divided into two lists,—the A list and the B list. Appointments to the A list are made by His Excellency the Viceroy.

Inspectors of the A list, after passing the prescribed examinations, are eligible for promotion to the higher grades of superior

officers. Appointments to the B list of Inspectors are made by the promotion of deserving head constables or by direct appointment. Inspectors of the B list, after passing the prescribed examinations, are eligible for promotion to:—

- (a) First-grade inspector;
- (b) B list Assistant District Superintendent.

Assistant District Superintendents of the B list are not ordinarily eligible for promotion to District Superintendent.

The following passages relating to the system of rewards are reprinted *verbatim* from the *Burma Police Manual*:—

77. When a police officer has performed specially meritorious service for which it is considered desirable to reward him, the most appropriate form of reward is to grant him promotion.

78. In granting promotion as a reward for good service, due regard must be had to the seniority and qualifications of the officer whom it is proposed to reward. In cases where his position on the seniority roll or his lack of the necessary qualifications debar him from immediate promotion, a money reward may be granted.

79. Money rewards may only be granted with the previous sanction of the Inspector-General, the Local Government, or the Government of India, as the case may be. Recommendations for such reward should be submitted by the District Superintendent to the Inspector-General with a brief report on the facts of the case, and should state the amount of the reward which it is proposed to grant. Officers above the rank of Inspector are not eligible for the receipt of money rewards. The Inspector-General may sanction rewards up to a total amount of Rs. 200 in any particular case, and, subject to that limit, without restriction as to the amount awarded to any particular officer. In special cases the Local Government may sanction rewards up to Rs. 500 in any one case. Rewards in excess of Rs. 500 may not be granted without the previous sanction of the Government of India.

80. Recommendations for the grant of money rewards should only be made in cases where an officer has shown real detective skill or marked energy or courage in the prevention or detection of crime.

81. Nothing in these rules affects the orders under which rewards, pensions, and gratuities have hitherto been granted to police officers, namely:—

- (1) Rewards granted under any express provision of law. [These require no previous sanction.] (Paragraph 89.)
- (2) With the previous sanction of the Inspector-General, rewards offered to the public by proclamation—
 - (a) for the arrest of criminals or for information leading to their arrest or conviction; and
 - (b) for the recapture of an escaped convict or under-trial prisoner. (Paragraphs 83–88.)

- (3) Rewards offered by private persons. These may be paid with the previous sanction of the Inspector-General.
- (4) Pensions and gratuities granted on account of injuries sustained in the execution of police duty in arresting criminals. Cases of this nature are governed by Chapter XXXIV, Section II, of the Civil Service Regulations, and a special report should be made in each such case for submission to the Local Government.

82. In addition to, or in lieu of, a reward in money or in any other form a good service certificate in Form ^{Police}₈₈ may be granted by the District Superintendent to a police officer of and below the rank of Head Constable who gives efficient aid or exhibits special detective ability in the investigation or detection of a criminal case, or who shows bravery or zeal in arresting, or attempting to arrest outlaws or dangerous criminals.

Good service certificates should be given only for really good work, and should not be made cheap or lightly prized by being distributed broadcast in every petty case. Each certificate should relate to a separate case or act of good service. Certificates should be shown at kit inspections. In making promotions, the District Superintendent should take into account the possession of certificates. Similarly, the possession of certificates should be taken into consideration towards the mitigation of punishment. Men who resign or are merely removed should be permitted to retain possession of their certificates. Men who are dismissed should be deprived of them.

Rules for the offer and payment of rewards in Criminal Cases.

83. A District Superintendent may offer or pay for the arrest of criminals for information which leads to their arrest or conviction, or for assistance in procuring their surrender, rewards not exceeding Rs. 50 in respect of any one person.

84. A Deputy Commissioner may offer or pay, in the cases specified in paragraph 83, rewards not exceeding Rs. 100 in respect of any one person.

85. A Commissioner or the Inspector-General of Police may sanction the offer or payment in the cases specified in paragraph 83 of rewards not exceeding Rs. 500 in respect of any one person.

86. A Deputy Commissioner may pay to any persons who show courage and determination in resisting robbers a reward not exceeding Rs. 50 in any one case.

87. A Commissioner may pay, in the case described in paragraph 86, a reward not exceeding Rs. 200 in any one case.

88. A reward according to the following scale may be paid to the person or persons who secure the recapture of an escaped prisoner:—

	Rs.
For a prisoner under sentence of seven years' imprisonment or more	100
For any other prisoner, whether under-trial or convict	50

The reward will be paid by the Magistrate of the district in which the prisoner is captured. Provided that no rewards shall be paid in any case in which an escaped prisoner voluntarily gives himself up, or to any person responsible for the safe custody of the prisoner when he escaped. Provided also that, for reasons to be recorded, the Magistrate of the district may in any case withhold the payment of the reward.

89. The Magistrate trying the case may direct any portion of any fine which shall be levied under sections 10, 11, 12, and 13 of the Burma Gambling Act, No. 1 of 1899, or any part of the moneys or proceeds of articles seized and ordered to be forfeited under the Act, to be paid to any person who has contributed in any way to the conviction. In all cases where confiscation under section 24 of the Indian Arms Act, 1878, has resulted in consequence of arrests made by, or from information given by, any customs officers, railway servants, police officers, steamboat officers, or other persons, a reward not exceeding the estimated value of the confiscated articles may, if such amount does not exceed Rs. 50, be given by the Magistrate of the district to the person who made the arrest or gave the information. If such amount exceeds Rs. 50 and does not exceed Rs. 250, its donation may be authorised by the Commissioner of the division in which the articles were ordered to be confiscated.

90. The previous sanction of the Lieutenant-Governor must be obtained for the offer or payment of any reward not specially authorised by these rules.

91. A sum is entered yearly in the Police budget for rewards payable under these rules. The sum is allotted by the Inspector-General to the several districts, and no reward in excess of the budget allotment can be paid in any district except under the Lieutenant-Governor's orders. The Inspector-General of Police may make transfers from the allotment of one district to that of another.

92. Ordinarily, rewards are paid by the District Superintendent, but the Deputy Commissioner may pay a reward himself or may order it to be paid by any officer subordinate to him.

93. Gazetted officers or Myoóks cannot receive rewards except with the special sanction of the Lieutenant-Governor, and no reward shall be offered or paid under these rules to any soldier except with the previous sanction of the Major-General Commanding.

94. No rewards may be offered or paid under these rules to any police officer except with the previous sanction of the Inspector-General (paragraph 79). This rule does not apply to rural police officers.

95. These rules place the payment of rewards ordinarily in the hands of the District Superintendent, and should insure their prompt payment. When a proclaimed reward has been earned, the District Superintendent should ascertain whether the District Magistrate wishes to pay it or wishes a subordinate officer to pay it. Unless the District Magistrate otherwise directs, the District Superintendent should at once draw the reward from the treasury and pay it, taking a receipt in duplicate from the payee: the original should be sent to the office of the Inspector-General with the contingent account as in any other contingent charge.

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

The following tables show the race, and religion or caste, of the officers and men of the Burma Civil Police at the beginning of 1900. The official return is made quinquennially; and the return bringing the figures down to 1906 has not reached me at the time this volume goes to press.

RACE OF OFFICERS AND MEN OF THE BURMA CIVIL POLICE, 1900.

	European.	Eurasian.*	Native.†
District Superintendents	35	—	—
Assistant District Superintendents	49	3	6
Inspectors	45	21	56
Other grades superior to constable	9	24	1,367
Constables	—	3	10,699

RELIGION, OR CASTE OF OFFICERS AND MEN OF THE BURMA CIVIL POLICE, 1900.

	Officers.	Men.
Christians	214	89
Muhammadans	26	440
Brahmins	5	80
Rajputs	1	37
Goorkhas	1	34
Sikhs	2	132
Manipuris	—	14
All other Hindus	10	307
Nat-worshippers ‡	10	383
Buddhists ‡	1,346	9,186

The Civil Police of Burma may be divided according to their armament into two main classes,—one class armed with fire-arms, the other armed with swords or bâtons. At the beginning of 1904 the armament of the force was as follows: armed with breech-loading smooth-bores or carbines, 3,501; armed with muzzle-loading smooth-bores, 29; armed with swords, 8,365; armed with bâtons only, 471,—that is to say, 3,530 provided with fire-arms, and 8,836 provided with swords (*das*) or bâtons.

* A Eurasian is a person born of a native East Indian mother and a European father.

† The term "native" as used here means a native of India, of Burma, or of an adjacent country.

‡ These Buddhists and Nat-worshippers are practically all natives of Burma.

LEAVE, PAY, AND PENSIONS.

Officers in the Civil Police holding substantive rank as Assistant District Superintendent, A list, and officers of higher rank fall in the matter of leave under the same rules as members of the Indian Civil Service. These rules are epitomised on pages 170–172, of this volume.

A general outline of the rules applicable to members of the Civil Police below the substantive rank of Assistant District Superintendent, A list, is as follows:—

A. For Members of the Force whose pay exceeds Rs. 20 per month.

I. *Privilege leave.*—One month's leave for every 11 months of uninterrupted service. The leave may accumulate for three months and 15 days to those officers who are not natives of India. Full salary for the whole period is only admissible to officers whose pay is not less than Rs. 100 *per mensem*, and to others when no substitute is appointed or when leave is granted for one month or less at a time.

II. *Leave on Medical Certificate.*—Sick leave, to the extent of three years in all, may be taken on medical certificate, but not more than two years may be taken at one time. Half-pay will be drawn for the first 15 months of each period of leave, but not for more than 30 months in all. For the rest of the leave quarter-pay will be drawn.

III. *Furlough.*—One year's furlough on half-pay after ten years' service and another year after a service of eight years more, or two years after 18 years' service, may be granted, provided that the service of an officer who has had leave on private affairs counts only from the date of his last return from such leave; and also that the aggregate amount of furlough and leave on private affairs taken together shall not exceed two years.

IV. *Leave on private affairs.*—Six months' leave on private affairs may be taken on half-pay after six years' service, and again after each interval of six years. This leave can be taken only by an officer who has not had furlough: it cannot be taken in instalments or accumulated.

NOTE.—The grant of leave allowances equal to half-pay or one-fourth pay to an officer whose pay is less than Rs. 100, referred to in clauses II, III, and IV above, is subject to the condition that the available pay of the absentee is sufficient to cover the cost of acting arrangements (if any) made during his absence.

V. *Leave without allowances.*—Leave without allowances may, in case of necessity, be granted for such definite time as may be necessary. It may not be granted in continuation of privilege leave or for an unspecified period.

B. For Members of the Force whose pay is Rs. 20 per month, or less.

I. *Privilege leave* on full pay is admissible up to the limit of three months' leave in three years' service.

NOTE.—District Superintendents should be guided by the exigencies of the service in granting privilege leave. Such leave should only be given when absence is not attended with detriment to the service. Substitutes cannot be entertained in place of constables on privilege leave, as this would involve withdrawal of the leave pay.

II. *Hospital leave*.—When a man is sick in hospital, or is receiving medical aid as an out-door patient, he may be granted leave of absence for six months in any period of three years, with full pay for the first three months and half-pay for the remaining three months. This concession is subject to the proviso that the illness is certified not to have been caused by irregular or intemperate habits.

III. *Leave on medical certificate* on half-pay or on one-fourth pay under the conditions stated in clause II, page 209, or *leave on private affairs* under the conditions stated in clause IV, on page 209, may also be granted, subject to the conditions as to the grant of leave allowances referred to in the note under clause IV, on page 209.

IV. *Leave without pay* may be granted at discretion for a specified time, but not in continuation of privilege leave or for an indefinite period.

When leave or change of air is recommended by a medical officer, privilege leave should, if possible, be granted if the individual is entitled to it.

Grant of Leave.

Casual leave may be granted by a District Superintendent to any subordinate officer below the rank of Inspector in charge of a subdivision, but not for a longer period than ten days at one time, and under no circumstances in extension of any other description of leave. Assistant District Superintendents or Inspectors in charge of outlying subdivisions may grant leave as above under this rule to their subordinates, but not for a longer period than seven days. The grant of such leave should be reported to the District Superintendent.

NOTE.—When men at stations or outposts are certified to be sick, casual leave for a few days may always be conceded without putting them under any stoppages.

Leave of any other kind is granted as under:—

- (i) By the District Superintendent to constables and Sergeants (for any term admissible).
- (ii) By the Inspector-General to Head Constables and Inspectors provided that, if the leave be leave on medical certificate to an Inspector for a period exceeding six months, the papers must be countersigned by the Inspector-General of Jails with Civil Medical Administration.

The following table shows the monthly pay of all ranks of the Civil Police of Burma at the beginning of the year 1904, and also the monthly pay for each grade suggested in the Report of the Police Commission, 1902–03. In a Resolution dated Calcutta, 21st of March, 1905, the Government of India substantially concurs with the views of the Commission as to the proposed alterations in police pay; and the new rates will be introduced gradually.

MONTHLY PAY OF CIVIL POLICE FORCE IN BURMA.

	At beginning of 1904.	Sanctioned in 1905.
	(Rupees)	(Rupees)
Inspector-General	2,250	*2,500-100-3,000
Deputy Inspector-General		
1st grade	1,500	2,000
2nd grade	1,000	1,750
3rd grade †	—	1,500
Commissioner City Police, Rangoon†	1,200	—
District Superintendents		
1st grade	900	1,200
2nd grade	800	1,000
3rd grade	700	900
4th grade	600	800
5th grade †	—	700
Assistant Superintendents		
1st grade	500	500
2nd grade	450	400
3rd grade	400	300
4th grade †	350	—
5th grade †	300	—
Provincial Assistant Superintendents		
1st grade †	350	—
2nd grade †	300	—
3rd grade †	250	—
Deputy Superintendents		
1st grade †	—	500
2nd grade †	—	400
3rd grade †	—	300
4th grade †	—	250
Inspectors		
1st grade	175	250
2nd grade	140	200
3rd grade †	—	175
4th grade †	—	150
Chief Head Constables		
1st grade †	100	—
2nd grade †	65	—
Superintendents, Rangoon City		
One at †	500	—
One at †	400	—
One at †	350	—
Sub-inspectors		
1st grade †	—	80
2nd grade †	—	70
3rd grade †	—	60
4th grade †	—	50
Sergeants		
1st grade †	50	—
2nd grade †	40	—
3rd grade †	35	—

* Rs. 2,500 mounting by annual increases of Rs. 100 to Rs. 3,000.

† New grades created under the new scheme of the Indian Police Commission, 1902-03.

‡ Grades dropped under the new scheme of the Indian Police Commission, 1902-03.

MONTHLY PAY OF CIVIL POLICE FORCE IN BURMA—*Continued.*

	At beginning of 1904.	Sanctioned in 1905.
	(Rupees)	(Rupees)
Sergeants— <i>Continued</i>		
4th grade *	30	—
5th grade *	25	—
6th grade *	19.6	—
7th grade *	15	—
Head Constables		
1st grade †	—	30
2nd grade †	—	25
3rd grade †	—	20
Mounted Constables		
1st grade †	—	18
2nd grade †	—	16
3rd grade †	—	14
4th grade †	—	12
Constables		
1st grade	18	18
2nd grade	16	16
3rd grade	15.8	14
4th grade	15	12
5th grade *	14.8.6	—
6th grade *	13.9	—
7th grade *	12	—
8th grade *	11.10	—
9th grade *	9.11	—
10th grade *	7.12	—

In addition to the pay shown in the foregoing table certain allowances are paid for keep of horses, travelling expenses, etc. Men below the rank of head constables are supplied by the Government, free of charge, with clothing and accoutrements.

PENSIONS OF THE CIVIL POLICE OF BURMA.

In the matter of pensions the Civil Police of Burma fall under special rules laid down in Chapter XIII. of the *Burma Police Manual*, and in Chapter XX. of the *Civil Service Regulations*, subject to the general provisions laid down in Chapters XVII., XVIII., and XIX. of the *Civil Service Regulations*. These provisions are epitomised on pages 163–166 of this volume. The following paragraphs indicate briefly the special conditions of pension applicable to the Civil Police of Burma.

All pensions are calculated on the basis of Superior service,

* Grades dropped under the new scheme of the Indian Police Commission, 1902–03.

† New grades created under the new scheme of the Indian Police Commission, 1902–03.

the rates for which are given on page 165 of this volume; and all the rules prescribed in Chapters XVII. to XIX. of the *Civil Service Regulations* for the calculation of pensions for Superior service apply to the Civil Police of Burma, except that (1) all service in the police after the age of eighteen years qualifies for pension;* and (2), in addition to the Privilege Leave which counts as service under the ordinary rules, one year's leave in fifteen years' service and two in thirty years' service so counts.

In continuation the following paragraphs are reprinted from Chapter XIII. of the *Burma Police Manual*:—

A long-roll is maintained in English in each District Superintendent's office, in which is recorded for each man in the constabulary—

(a) number, name, father's name, religion and tribe, village, circle, district, (b) age and height at time of, and date of, enrolment, (c) marks of identification, (d) rank, promotion, reduction, and suspension, (e) absence from duty on leave other than casual, (f) punishments awarded, notices of good or bad conduct, transfers, and every other incident in his service which may involve forfeiture of portions of his service or affect the amount of his pension. All entries will be checked by the Enlistment, Promotion, Reduction, and Dismissal Registers and by the Defaulters' Register and Order Book, and will be verified and signed by the District Superintendent monthly.

NOTE 1.—The necessary statements of service of every applicant for pension or gratuity should be prepared from the long-roll.

NOTE 2.—The maintenance of the long-roll does not supersede the necessity of keeping up service-books for police officers whose pay exceeds Rs. 20 *per mensem*. In the service-books all appointments and promotions, temporary or permanent, are recorded and initialled by the District Superintendent.

† NOTE 3.—The services of men employed in the Municipal Police forces of Upper Burma are pensionable.

Every police officer attaining the age of 55 years should be sent before the Civil Surgeon with a view to his being examined as to his fitness or otherwise for further service. If he is certified to be fit for further service, an application should be submitted to the Inspector-General for his retention. Every sanction accorded for such retention expires on the last day of the official year and must then be renewed if further retention is considered desirable. The Inspector-General can sanction retention or order retirement on any such application in the case of all police officers drawing pay not exceeding Rs. 20 a month, subject to the exception that he cannot sanction retention after the age of 60 years. In all other cases the orders of the Local Government are necessary.

NOTE 1.—To avoid the submission of a number of separate reports, all police officers who have attained (or are about to attain) the age of 55 years, should be

* Under the ordinary rules, except for Compensation Gratuity, an officer's service does not in the case of Superior service qualify for pension till he has completed twenty years of age.

† The general rule throughout India is that when the police force of a town is wholly supported by, and under the control of, a Municipality, the Government has no concern with the pensions.

called in to headquarters in the month of February and sent before the Civil Surgeon for examination. A return of all the men whom the Civil Surgeon declares fit for further service should be submitted so as to reach the Inspector-General on or before the 1st March. The Deputy Inspector-General of Civil Police will inform District Superintendents whether an extension of service has been granted or not.

NOTE 2.—Notwithstanding that sanction to retention in the service for a specified period has been given, a police officer who is found unfit for service before the expiry of that period may be retired with the Inspector-General's sanction.

If the Civil Surgeon declares an officer unfit for further service, his services may at once be dispensed with.

An officer who has attained the age of 55 years may, at his option, retire from the service.

A superannuation pension, calculated at half the average emoluments of the last five years of service, is ordinarily granted to an officer who retires either voluntarily or compulsorily under the 55 years' rule.

No police officer can be retired from the service as unfit for duty by reason of physical incapacity without the orders of the Inspector-General, except on an invalid pension.

An officer who is retired on a superannuation pension cannot be re-employed in Government service.

An invalid pension proportioned to the length of service is granted to an officer who is certified by the Civil Surgeon to be permanently incapacitated by bodily or mental infirmity for further service in the police. If the invalid's service is less than 10 years, a gratuity only is admissible.

If the incapacity is the result of irregular or intemperate habits, no pension can be granted.

District Superintendents and Civil Surgeons should be on their guard against endeavours to retire on invalid pension by officers who are capable of serving longer. Medical Officers confine themselves to recommending leave to such policemen as are not likely to benefit by a further stay in hospital, and do not certify that a policeman is incapacitated for further service unless they are officially requested to report upon the subject.

An officer who has submitted a medical certificate of incapacity for further service must, as a rule, be discharged from the service at once, but an exception is made in the case of police officers whose pay does not exceed Rs. 20, who may be retained in employment till their pensions are sanctioned.

An officer who has obtained an invalid pension may be re-employed in another branch of Government service subject to the proviso that he cannot draw, in pension and pay combined, a larger salary than he was drawing when he was pensioned.

A Provident Fund for officers of the Civil Police of or above the rank of Assistant District Superintendent was formed in 1899. Full particulars regarding the Fund are given in Government of India Resolution No. 3824 P., dated Simla, August 18, 1899. The minimum subscription to this fund is five per cent. of the salary, but this may be increased at the discretion of the sub-

Police Officers'
Provident Fund.

scriber to a maximum of ten per cent. with a *pro rata* increase in the benefits under the fund. Officers who have provided for their family by means of subscription to a Pension Fund or by ordinary life insurance, provided the sum annually expended for this purpose absorbs five per cent. of their salary, are relieved from the obligation of subscribing to the Provident Fund, as are also officers who possess, or whose wives possess, sufficient private means to secure their families against want.

THE WORK OF THE CIVIL POLICE.

The following tables show the general work of the Civil Police of Burma during the year 1903, and also the condition of crime in the Province during that year. The sub-heads under the main classes of crime are shown in detail in Appendix J.

The following tables show in a general way the condition of crime in Burma in 1903. From the further details shown in Appendix J the following facts in regard to the more serious kinds of crime are extracted.

Statistics of Serious Crime.

Definitions of these crimes and a lucid commentary with illustrations are to be found in the Indian Penal Code. The following figures relate to the number of crimes of each class reported during the year 1903 at the police stations of Burma: * murders, 357; attempted murder, 46; culpable homicide, 72; hurt by dangerous weapon, 2,609; grievous hurt, 1,999; dacoity, 101; robbery with hurt, 178; robbery, 274; lurking house-trespass or house-breaking with intent to commit an offence, or having made preparation for hurt, 1,933; house-trespass with view to commit an offence, or having made preparation for hurt, 764; false evidence, false complaints and claims, and fraudulent deeds and disposition of property, 208; forgery, or fraudulent use of forged documents, and falsifying accounts, 27; rioting and unlawful assembly, 214.

The great mass of cases taken up by the police fall under the heads of minor offences, and offences against special or local laws. Of minor offences reported during 1903

Statistics of Minor Offences.

there were 14,450 cases of theft, 4,463 cases of cattle theft, 1,111 cases of criminal or house-trespass, 1,281 cases of vagrancy and bad character, 2,570 cases of public and local nuisances. Of cognisable offences against special or local laws there were reported in 1903 the following: against the Gambling Act, 365, Excise Laws, 2,645,†

* Exclusive of Rangoon Town, for which the statistics are given separately on pp. 229, 230.

† Sentence continued on p. 218.

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

TABLE I.
CONDITION OF CRIME IN BURMA, 1903.
RETURN OF NUMBER OF CASES OF COGNISABLE CRIME REPORTED TO AND TAKEN UP BY THE POLICE.
(EXCLUSIVE OF RANGOON.)

DESCRIPTION OF CRIME.	1. Cases pending under investigation from 1902	2. Cases reported during 1903.	3. Cases taken up or otherwise than on report.	4. Total number of cases investigated in 1903.	5. Remaining under investigation at end of 1903.	6. Sent before the Courts during 1903.	7. Cases pending in Court from 1902.	8. Total number of cases before the Courts 1903.	9. Accused discharged or acquitted.	10. Accused convicted.	11. Percentage of convictions to total cases in columns 9 and 10.	12. Cases terminated by death, escape, etc.	13. Cases still under trial at end of 1903.
Class 1. Offences against the State, public tranquility, safety, and justice	20	311	36	367	12	287	14	301	85	205	71	1	10
Class 2. Serious offences against the person	545	7,653	52	8,219	434	4,741	167	4,908	1,463	2,852	66	459	134
Class 3. Serious offences against person and property, or against property only	304	4,545	14	4,840	240	2,040	59	2,099	708	1,298	65	35	58
Class 4. Minor offences against the person	13	349	2	361	14	231	2	233	74	135	65	22	2
Class 5. Minor offences against property	1,270	22,022	306	22,355	1,098	9,704	117	9,881	2,504	7,034	74	243	100
Class 6. Other offences. Vagrancy, gambling, nuisances, etc.	369	9,591	5,251	15,113	231	13,714	105	13,819	1,925	11,756	86	24	114
Total	2,521	44,471	5,661	51,255	2,029	30,777	464	31,241	6,759	23,280	77	784*	418

* Of this total, 29 died, 3 escaped, 17 became lunatics, 13 absconded, 2 cases were abandoned, 28 were withdrawn, and 692 were compounded.

TABLE II.
CONDITION OF CRIME IN BURMA, 1903.

RETURN OF NUMBER OF CASES OF NON-COGNISABLE CRIME REPORTED AND DEALT WITH. (EXCLUSIVE OF RANGOON.)

DESCRIPTION OF CRIME. <i>Non-cognisable offences are those for which a police officer may not arrest without warrant.</i>	1. Pending under trial at beginning of 1903.	2. Instituted during the year 1903.	3. Total number of cases for disposal in 1903.	4. Number of cases dismissed without trial.	5. Number of cases tried in 1903.	6. Number of cases ending in discharge or acquittal.	7. Number of cases ending in conviction.	8. Percentage of con- victions to total cases in columns 6 and 7.	9. Number of cases terminated by death, escape, etc.	10. Number of cases pending under trial at close of 1903.	11. Number of cases pending under investi- gation at close of 1903.
	90	1,238	1,328	82	1,246	394	743	65	31	74	4
Class 1. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, safety, and justice	—	4	4	3	1	—	1	100	—	2	—
Class 2. Serious offences against the person	11	81	92	12	80	46	27	37	3	158	2
Class 3. Serious offences against property	165	5,459	5,624	205	5,419	1,844	2,085	53	1,229	47	3
Class 4. Minor offences against the person	60	1,202	1,262	161	1,101	546	389	41	118	158	1
Class 5. Minor offences against property	436	15,808	16,244	517	15,727	3,786	10,218	72	1,238	469	16
Class 6. Other offences. Chiefly breaches of local Acts											
Total	762	23,792	24,554	980	23,574	6,616	13,463	67	2,719*	750	26

* Of this total, 8 died, 4 escaped, 134 absconded, 21 cases were abandoned, 125 were withdrawn, and 2,427 were compounded.

Opium Laws, 2,107; and of non-cognisable offences against special or local laws, against the Gambling Act, 1,069, the Municipal Act, 2,780, the Fisheries Act, 1,079, the Land Revenue Regulations, 1,078.

It should be noted that the figures given in the two preceding paragraphs relate to the number of cases reported, and that a considerable number of these were decided, on reference to a magistrate, never to have occurred or to have been mistakes of law or fact. The actual number of crimes committed and disposed of by the Courts are given under each separate head in Appendix J.

PUNITIVE POLICE.

For the better preservation of law and order the Government of Burma is empowered, under the Police Act of 1861, to assign an additional force of police to any district or area which is in a dangerous or disturbed state, or in which the general conduct of the inhabitants points to the need of closer police supervision.

Such additional police are known as Punitive Police; and the cost of placing and maintaining them in a district falls directly on the people of the district. The cost is made up of the pay of the force, the expense of building police-stations or barracks, clothing and other contingent charges of the force, and travelling charges.

The strength of a Punitive Police Force and the length of time for which it may be quartered in a district vary with the circumstances of each case. Usually the force consists of fifteen or twenty men under a native officer, and it is quartered in a district for six months, at a cost to the inhabitants varying from a few hundred rupees to several thousands, according to the number of men in the force.

The use of punitive police has been found necessary on very few occasions in recent years. In 1900 a punitive force of one sergeant and ten constables was quartered on the inhabitants of two villages in the Henzada District at a cost of Rs. 1,674, and a force of four constables on a village in the Thatôn District at a cost of Rs. 355. In 1901 two forces were quartered in Henzada at a cost of Rs. 3,481. In 1902, 1903, 1904, no punitive police were employed. In 1905 punitive police were employed in four cases in the Ma-ubin, Sagaing, and Meiktila Districts. The total cost of the four forces was Rs. 12,602.

DISCIPLINE AND GENERAL INTERNAL MANAGEMENT OF THE CIVIL POLICE OF BURMA.

The following table shows the principal facts in relation to the discipline and internal management of the Civil Police of Burma during the year 1903, and also certain other statistics of interest:

	Officers.	Men.
Actual strength of force	1,557	10,951
Armed with fire-arms		3,530
Armed with swords		8,365
Armed with bâtons only		471
Retired on pension or gratuity		100*
Resigned without pension or gratuity		970*
Dismissed from the force	29	532
Discharged otherwise than by retirement, resignation, or dismissal		196*
Deserted		160*
Died		203*
Number enlisted during the year		2,099*
Of one year's service and under ten		7,533*
Of ten years' service and upwards		3,590*
Punished departmentally	353	1,944
Punished judicially	28	341
Rewarded		3,142*
Number who can read and write	1,515	9,296
Admission to hospital, per cent.		27.25
Daily average sick, per cent.		1.39
Deaths, per cent.		1.62

ORGANISATION OF THE MILITARY POLICE.

The recruiting for the Military Police is conducted under such orders as the Inspector-General may frame with the sanction of the Local Government. All Military Police officers are appointed under Act V. of 1861 and enrolled under Act XV. of 1887, and are given certificates of appointment. The Military Police are formed into battalions. To each battalion in Upper Burma are attached one or more British officers as Commandant or Assistant Commandant. In Lower Burma the British officers so attached to each battalion are styled Adjutants and Assistant Adjutants.

Subject to the orders and rules framed by the Inspector-General, the responsibility for the training, discipline, and internal economy of the Military Police rests, in the case of the Upper Burma Military Police, with the Commandant, or, in

* It does not appear in the official reports whether these figures include officers as well as men.

his absence, with the senior Assistant Commandant where no officer has been specially appointed to act for the Commandant. In the case of the Lower Burma Military Police the Adjutant is responsible for the interior economy of the battalion (pay, promotions, grant of furlough, supply of clothing, and clothing account, supply and renewal of accoutrements, care of arms, etc.) and for the discipline and training of the men at headquarters. The seniority-roll for promotion, the furlough register, the clothing, stores, and accounts must all be kept at headquarters by the Adjutant; and he will note any requirements or irregularities in these matters during his inspection, and make them good. For discipline, drill, and duty the various detachments in the districts are under the orders of the District Superintendent concerned.

Detachments of Lower Burma Military Police, when serving in Upper Burma, are under the orders of the Commandant of the battalion to which they may be attached; and, in the same way, detachments of Upper Burma Military Police serving in Lower Burma, when not accompanied by a British officer of the battalion, are under the orders of the Adjutant or of the District Superintendent, according as they may be employed at headquarters or not. In Upper Burma the Commandant of each battalion is invested with the powers of a Magistrate of the first class for the purpose of trying offences punishable under Act V. of 1861 and Act XV. of 1887, committed by men under his command, and with those of a Magistrate of the second class for trying members of his battalion accused of offences under sections 379 and 380 of the Indian Penal Code in cases in which the complainants are also members of the battalion. Offences punishable under Act V. of 1861 and Act XV. of 1887 committed by Military Policemen in Lower Burma are, under the orders of the Local Government, tried by the District Magistrate.

Promotion up to the rank of first-grade Havildar is made in the Upper Burma Military Police by the Commandant of the battalion, and in the Lower Burma Military Police by the Adjutant. Promotions to the ranks and grades above the rank of first-grade Havildar must receive the sanction of the Inspector-General. When a vacancy occurs in the Military Police of Lower Burma, and the Adjutant proposes to fill it by promoting a Military Police officer serving in a district of Lower Burma, the Adjutant requests the District Superintendent to report on the conduct of the Military Police officer in question and on his fitness for promotion, and is guided by the District Superintendent's report in making or recommending the promotion.

The Military Police occupy such stations and outposts as may be necessary for the maintenance of order, and furnish all guards and escorts required by the Civil authorities throughout the district. The allocation of the Military Police is determined from time to time by the Lieutenant-Governor, and no change of a permanent character in the distribution of the force can be made without the Lieutenant-Governor's sanction.

The superior officers of the Burma Military Police are the Inspector-General and the Deputy Inspectors-General of the Burma Police, and the following officers who are specially attached to the Military section of the force:—

Battalion Commandants, Adjutants, and District Superintendents of Police; Assistant Commandants, Assistant Adjutants, and Assistant District Superintendents of Police; and Inspectors of Civil Police who have been appointed to be also Inspectors of Military Police.

The executive officers of the Military Police are:—

Subadar-Majors, Subadars, Jemadars, Drill Havildars, Havildars, Naiks, Lance-Naiks, and Sepoys.

The following table shows the actual strength of the Burma Military Police at the beginning of 1904:—

STRENGTH OF THE MILITARY POLICE OF BURMA, 1904.

Inspector-General	1	Havildars	763
Deputy Inspectors-General	2	Naiks	496
Commandants	12	Sepoys	13,129
Assistant Commandants.	31	Buglers	267
Subadars	132	Total	15,165
Jemadars	232		

LEAVE, PAY, AND PENSIONS.

The following rules in relation to Leave in the Burma Military Police are reprinted from Chapter XXXVII. of the fourth edition of the *Civil Service Regulations*. Additional details may be found in Chapter XXIV. of the *Burma Military Police Manual*, 1901.

714. These rules apply to—

(a) All members of the Burma Military Police who originally enlisted on an engagement under the direct orders of the Government of India, and on a renewal of their engagement, to all members who joined the Force from the Army prior to 1st January 1889.

(b) All members of the Burma Military Police enlisted by the Government of Burma.

(c) Soldiers who join the Force from the Native Army after the 31st December 1888, or who, having joined before that date, are now serving in Lower Burma, not having been transferred from Upper Burma in the interests of the public service.

(d) Karen recruits.

(e) All members not being soldiers of the Native Army on renewal of their engagements who were enlisted under the direct orders of the Government of India.

(f) Kachins enlisted in the Military Police.

(g) Salutries and Armourers.

Leave and Leave Allowances.

715. Furlough on private affairs on half Burma pay (except for members mentioned in Article 714 (a) who will draw full Burma pay) for not more than six months may be granted by Battalion Commandants on condition that the number absent on furlough and sick leave at any one time does not, except under the special orders of the Government of India, exceed $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the strength of the Battalion.

716. Leave on medical certificate for not more than six months may be granted by Battalion Commandants to all ranks. A man taking such leave forfeits his turn for furlough and his name is placed at the bottom of the furlough roster. Extensions of leave on medical certificate beyond a period of six months in the aggregate may be sanctioned by the Inspector-General of Police, Burma, such extensions being reported to the Local Government in a half-yearly list, but the amount of leave which may be granted with pay at one time is limited to two years.

717. (a) Allowances on leave on medical certificate are:—

(i) In the case of the members mentioned in clause (a) of Article 714, full Burma pay for the first six months and afterwards at the rate of one-quarter the Burma pay: provided that the Local Government may in any case by special order direct that a man on leave on medical certificate after the first six months shall draw any allowance not exceeding one-half the Burma pay.

(ii) In the case of the members mentioned in clauses (b) to (g) of Article 714, half full Burma pay for the first six months and, in case of extension being granted, not more than one-fourth full Burma pay without the sanction of the Local Government.

(b) The leave allowance of a man on leave on medical certificate taken in extension of furlough is one-fourth full Burma pay.

NOTE 1.—An advance of three months' pay may be made to the men mentioned in Article 714 (a), going on sick leave. A man who obtains an advance of three months' pay is not eligible for another remittance for four months.

NOTE 2.—The language allowances, or extra pay, of Military Policemen for passing examinations in Yunnanese, Burmese, Shan, Chin and Kachin are treated as salary for the purpose of calculating leave allowances, but are not taken into account in calculating pension.

718. Sick leave on full pay for a period not exceeding two months may be granted by Battalion Commandants to all ranks while in hospital in Burma and on half pay for any period in excess of two months. Sick leave on full pay may, however, be granted to all ranks while in hospital in Burma on account of wounds received in action until they are discharged from hospital. Leave granted under this rule does not interfere with the grant of leave to India on medical certificate.

719. Battalion Commandants may grant privilege leave on urgent private affairs to men whose conduct has been good.

720. The Inspector-General of Police may frame subsidiary rules not inconsistent with these rules for the guidance of Commandants in granting furlough and leave.

The pay of Commandants and Assistant Commandants in the Military Police is the Staff Corps pay of their military rank, together with staff allowances and local allowances according to circumstances. The ordinary staff allowance for Commandants is Rs. 400 a month, and for Assistant Commandants Rs. 200 a month; but these allowances are considerably increased when the officer concerned passes the prescribed examinations in Burmese, Chin, Shan, and other languages. The following table shows the pay of all ranks in the Military Police:—

MONTHLY PAY OF MILITARY POLICE IN BURMA.
(IN RUPEES.)

Rank.	Pay.	Staff Allowance.	Rank.	Pay.	Staff Allowance.
Commandants			Subadars	100-150	Subadar-Major 50
Majors . . .	640	400	Jemadars	50-65	Jemadar-Adjutant 17.8
Captains . .	374	400	Havildars	25-30	Drill Havildar 5.
Assistant Comm.			Naiks .	20	Pay Havildar 5.
Majors . . .	640	200-250	Sepoys .	14-16	Drill Naik 2.8
Captains . .	374	200-250			
Lieutenants .	225	200-250			

In the matter of pensions the members of the Military Police of Burma fall into two classes, one containing those who are pensionable under Civil Service Regulations, the other containing those who are pensionable under Military Pension Rules. The following rules are reprinted from the *Burma Military Police Manual*, 1901. In the case of persons under Military Pension Rules, and whose pay is not over

Rs. 20 *per mensem*, a deduction of half an anna in the rupee is made from the monthly pay, on account of the Superannuation Fund.

Amount of invalid, superannuation, and retiring pensions under Civil Service Regulations.

402. The scale of invalid pensions and gratuities and superannuation and retiring pensions sanctioned by the Civil Service Regulations is as follows:—

After a service of less than 10 years, a gratuity not exceeding (except in special cases, and under the orders of the Government of India) one month's emoluments for each completed year of service. After a service of not less than 10 years, a pension not exceeding the following amounts:—

Years of completed service.	Scale of pension.	Maximum limit of pension (in rupees.)	
10	10	2,000	166 $\frac{2}{3}$
11	11	2,200	183 $\frac{1}{3}$
12	12	2,400	200
13	13	2,600	216 $\frac{2}{3}$
14	14	2,800	233 $\frac{1}{3}$
15	15	3,000	250
16	16	3,200	266 $\frac{2}{3}$
17	17	3,400	283 $\frac{1}{3}$
18	18	3,600	300
19	19	3,800	316 $\frac{2}{3}$
20	20	4,000	333 $\frac{1}{3}$
21	21	4,200	350
22	22	4,400	366 $\frac{2}{3}$
23	23	4,600	383 $\frac{1}{3}$
24	24	4,800	400
25 and above 30	25	5,000	416 $\frac{2}{3}$

sixtieths of average emoluments. } a year or } a month.

403. A superannuation pension, or an invalid pension granted on account of incapacity for further service due to old age or natural decay from advancing years, shall, if the officer's qualifying service began after the 20th January 1871, and after he attained the age of 30 years, be reduced by one-fortieth for every year, or part of a year by which his age at the commencement of his qualifying service exceeded 30 years. The foregoing fixed limits should be applied before and not after making reductions (*vide* Article 521, Civil Service Regulations).

Amount of invalid and retiring pensions and gratuities under Military Pension Rules.

404. The amount of invalid and retiring pensions and gratuities obtainable under Military Regulations is as follows:—

Gratuities.

Above five years and under 10 years' service,—a gratuity of three months' pay of rank.

Above 10 years and under 15 years' service,—a gratuity of six months' pay of rank.

Above 15 and under 21 years' service,—a gratuity of 12 months' pay of rank (applicable only to police officers who entered the army after the 30th November 1886).

405. Men who have not completed 15 years' service, or in the case of men who entered the army after the 30th November 1886, 21 years' service, and who are invalided in consequence of disorders brought on themselves by indulgence in drugs or drinks or are discharged on account of insanity brought on by such indulgence, should receive three-fourths of the gratuity; those cases only in which full gratuity is recommended on account of good service or other sufficient cause being submitted for the special consideration of Government.

406. A man who becomes incapacitated from performing his duty after completing 14 years' service is not to be discharged with gratuity except under very special circumstances, but should be brought before the Civil Surgeon after completing the term of service qualifying for pension. This does not apply to men who entered the Army after the 30th November 1886.

Pensions.

407. Men enlisted prior to the 1st December 1886 can, after 15 years' service, if pronounced unfit for further service, be discharged with ordinary pensions. Ordinary pensions are admissible in the case of men who have completed 21 years' service, irrespective of their fitness or unfitness for further service on the following monthly scale:—

	<i>Ordinary.</i> Rs.
Native officers ranking with Subadars	30
Native officers ranking with Jemadars	15
Non-commissioned officers and salutries ranking with Havildars	7
Privates ranking with sepoys or sowars	4

408. The superior rate of pension is granted after 32 years' service subject to the prescribed conditions, on the following monthly scale.

	<i>Superior.</i> Rs
Native officers ranking with Subadars	50
Native officers ranking with Jemadars	25
Non-commissioned officers and salutries ranking with Havildars	12
Privates ranking with sepoys or sowars	7

Amount of Family Pension under the Civil Service Regulations.

418. A pension may be granted to the family of a police officer, serving under the Civil Service Regulations, who is killed in the execution of his

duty, not exceeding half the pay of the deceased officer, and not less than Rs. 2-12-0 *per mensem*.

419. The Government does not bind itself to grant a pension in every case, or, if it grants a pension, to grant it for life.

Amount of Family Pension under Military Rules.

420. There are two scales of pension sanctioned for the families of Native officers of Military Police serving under Military Pension Rules. The scale on which pension is granted in each case depends on the circumstances under which the deceased officer met his death.

(a) When the officer is killed in action with the enemy, or within six months after being wounded in action dies from his wounds, the family of a Subadar is entitled to a pension of Rs. 36 *per mensem* and a gratuity of one year's pay of the grade in which the deceased officer was serving at the date of his death; and the family of a Jemadar is entitled to a pension of Rs. 13-13-0 *per mensem* and a gratuity of one year's pay of the grade in which the deceased officer was serving at the date of his death.

(b) When the officer died from an accident while on an expedition, or from sickness contracted on and wholly due to an expedition, if a Subadar, his family is entitled to a pension of Rs. 26 *per mensem*; if a Jemadar, to one of Rs. 8-8-0 *per mensem*, but to no gratuity.

421. The family of a non-commissioned officer, salutri, sepoy, or bugler serving under Military Pension Rules, who is killed in action, or who dies from his wounds within six months after being wounded in action, or who dies from an accident while on, or from sickness wholly due to, an expedition, is entitled to pension on the following scale according to the rank of the deceased:—

	Rs.	A.
Non-commissioned officer or salutri	4	8
Naik	3	8
Sepoy or bugler.	2	12

Special rules exist for the payment of pensions and gratuities to military policemen wounded in action with an enemy, in an insurrection, or in the execution of any public duty. These rules may be found in full in the *Burma Military Police Manual*, 1901. The pensions vary with the degree of injury received and the particular circumstances of each case.

DISCIPLINE AND GENERAL INTERNAL MANAGEMENT OF THE MILITARY POLICE OF BURMA.

The following table shows the principal facts in relation to the discipline and internal management of the Military Police

of Burma during 1903, and also certain other statistics of interest:—

	Officers.*	Men.
Actual strength of force	407	14,655
Retired on pension or gratuity	12	278
Resigned without pension or gratuity	—	333
Dismissed from the force	—	63
Deserted	—	102
Died	3	244
Number enlisted during the year	—	987
Punished departmentally	11	938
Punished judicially	—	109
Rewarded	5	3
Admission to hospital, per cent. of average strength of force		127.41
Deaths, per cent. of average strength		1.66

THE RANGOON TOWN POLICE.

In 1899 an Act was passed by the Legislature of Burma—the Rangoon Police Act, 1899—constituting the Rangoon Police Force a separate establishment. The administration of this Force is vested in the Commissioner of Police, subject to the direct control of the Local Government; that is to say, the Commissioner is not under the control of the Inspector-General of the Police of Burma.

The sanctioned strength of the Rangoon Town Police in the year 1904 was as follows:—

Commissioner	1	Other Officers	16
District and Assistant District Superintendents	3	Head Constables and Sergeants	68
Inspectors	15	Constables	750
		Total	853

In addition to the above, who are paid wholly or in part from Imperial or Provincial Revenues, there are 9 officers and 55 men paid from Local Funds.

The total cost of the Rangoon Town Police in 1904 was Rs. 339,777, of which Rs. 17,890 was paid from Local Funds, and the balance from the general revenues of the Province.

* Down to and including Subadars.

The following table shows the principal facts in relation to the discipline and internal management of the Rangoon Town Police during 1904, and also certain other statistics of interest:—

	Officers.	Men.
Actual strength of force	98	749
Armed with breech-loading smooth-bores or carbines,		87
Armed with swords		128
Armed with bâtons only		616
Retired on pension or gratuity		21*
Resigned without pension or gratuity		49*
Dismissed from the force		24*
Discharged otherwise than by retirement, resignation, or dismissal		15*
Deserted		1
Died		9*
Enlisted during the year		115*
Of one year's service and under ten		470*
Of ten years' service and upwards		268*
Punished departmentally	28	348
Punished judicially	—	4
Rewarded		407*
Number who can read and write	101	377
Admission to hospital, per cent.		78
Daily average sick, per cent.		1.83
Deaths, per cent.		1.06

The figures given in the Reports on Police Administration in Burma and in Rangoon Town, though covering every detail of police work, do not furnish any single clear statement of the condition of crime in Burma. There are a number of tables, some dealing with cognisable crime, some with non-cognisable crime, some with cases reported to or taken up by the police, some with cases instituted by complaint before a magistrate or by a magistrate *suo motu*; but these are not summarised in one table, and it is practically impossible to gain from the police reports any clear idea of the total amount of crime committed in Burma. It is only by consulting another set of Reports—the Reports on Criminal Justice—that the actual condition of crime in Burma can be discovered. A full statement of crime is given in Table V., Appendix J, of this volume.

The following tables show the condition of crime in Rangoon in 1903. Further details are given in Appendix J.

*It does not appear in the official reports whether these figures include officers as well as men.

TABLE I.
CONDITION OF CRIME IN RANGOON, 1903.

RETURN OF CASES OF COGNISABLE CRIME REPORTED TO AND TAKEN UP BY THE POLICE.

DESCRIPTION OF CRIME. "Cognisable" offences are those for which a police officer may legally arrest without warrant.	1. Cases pending under investiga- tion from 1902.	2. Cases reported during 1903.	3. Cases taken up otherwise than on report.	4. Total number of cases investi- gated in 1903.	5. Remaining under investigation at end of 1903.	6. Sent before the courts during 1903.	7. Cases pending in court from 1902.	8. Total number of cases before the courts in 1903.	9. Accused, dis- charged, or ac- quitted.	10. Accused, con- victed.	11. Percentage of convictions to total cases in columns 9 & 10.	12. Cases termi- nated by death, escape, etc.	13. Cases still under trial at end of 1901.
CLASS 1. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, and justice	—	21	—	21	—	19	—	19	4	15	79	—	—
CLASS 2. Serious offences against the person	2	106	—	108	—	140	7	147	44	87	66	11	5
CLASS 3. Serious offences against person and property or against property only	—	121	—	118	1	65	2	67	18	48	73	1	—
CLASS 4. Minor offences against the person	1	10	—	11	—	6	—	6	3	3	50	—	—
CLASS 5. Minor offences against property	7	1,203	—	1,095	2	650	7	657	129	523	80	2	3
CLASS 6. Other offences, vagrancy, gambling, nuisances, etc.	1	574	10,782	11,357	—	11,341	4	11,345	1,937	9,126	73	122	160
Total	11	2,125	10,782	12,800	3	12,221	20	12,241	2,135	9,802	82	136	168

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

TABLE II.
CONDITION OF CRIME IN RANGOON, 1903.
RETURN OF CASES OF NON-COGNISABLE CRIME REPORTED AND DEALT WITH.

Description of Crime.	1. Pending under trial at beginning of 1903.	2. Instituted by complaint during 1903.	3. Taken up by magistrate on his own motion or on information from the police.	4. Total for disposal in 1903.	5. Dismissed without trial.	6. Ending in discharge or acquittal.	7. Ending in conviction.	8. Pending under trial at end of 1903.	9. Cases compounded or terminated by escape, etc.	10. Cases declared by court never to have occurred or to be mistakes of law or fact.
Class 1. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, and justice	6	45	202	253	16	64	115	8	45	5
Class 2. Serious offences against the person	—	—	1	1	—	1	—	—	—	—
Class 3. Serious offences against person and property or against property only	—	1	2	3	—	1	—	1	1	—
Class 4. Minor offences against the person	20	662	—	682	17	227	215	39	183	1
Class 5. Minor offences against property	—	46	—	46	12	19	6	1	7	1
Class 6. Other offences, vagrancy, gambling, nuisances, etc.	232	2,679	31	2,942	80	382	1,646	55	779	—
Total	258	3,433	236	3,927	125	694	1,982	104	1,015*	7

* 38 absconded, 232 compounded, 747 withdrawn.

CHAPTER IX.

PRISON ADMINISTRATION IN BURMA

REFERENCES.

- Manual of Rules for the Superintendence and Management of Jails in Burma. Prescribed by the Lieutenant-Governor of Burma. Revised edition, 1899. Rangoon, Govt. Press, 1899. pp. iii+297+cciii.
- Report on the Prison Administration of Burma. Rangoon, Govt. Press. Annual.
- The Quarterly Civil List for Burma. No. CXLIII. Corrected up to the 1st of January, 1906. Rangoon, Govt. Press, 1906. pp. viii+388+xxxi.

The following Acts and Regulations deal specially with the establishment and management of jails:—The Prisons Act of 1894, The Prisoners Act of 1871 as amended; Bengal Regulation No. III. of 1818 for the Confinement of State Prisoners; Act XXIV. of 1855 relating to European and American Prisoners; Act XV. of 1869, the Prisoners Testimony Act; Act VIII. of 1897, the Reformatory Schools Act; Act XXVI. of 1858, relating to wandering lunatics; Act XV. of 1877, Limitations of Appeals; and Act IX. of 1874, European Vagrancy Act.

CLASSIFICATION OF THE JAILS.

In April, 1906, the latest report on jails issued by the Government of Burma was for the year 1904; and the figures given in this chapter, except where otherwise stated, refer to 1904.

There are two classes of jails in Burma: (1) *Central Jails*, intended for the confinement of all classes of prisoners, including prisoners sentenced to transportation; and (2) *District Jails*, intended for the confinement of prisoners sentenced to terms of imprisonment not exceeding five years.

Central jails are divided into two classes: First Class Central Jails, containing 1,000 convicts and upwards; Second Class Central Jails, containing less than 1,000 convicts.

District Jails are divided into five classes. First Class District Jails contain not less than 500 convicts, Second Class not less than 300, Third Class not less than 150, Fourth Class not less than 50, and Fifth Class District Jails contain less than 50 convicts. The classification for the current year is made each April on the basis of the average prisoner population of the preceding year.

The following is the classification of the jails of Burma for the year 1904:—

First Class Central Jails.

Rangoon (Native Jail)
Rangoon (European Jail)
Insein

Second Class Central Jails.

Bassein Myingyan
Thayetmayo Mandalay

Second Class District Jails.

Akyab Henzada
Prome Moulmein
Ma-ubin Toungoo
Myaungmya

Third Class District Jail.

Paungdè

Fourth Class District Jails.

Kyaukpyu	Sandoway
Myanaung	Tavoy
Mergui	Shwegyin
Bhamo	Katha
Shwebo	Mônnya
Pakôkku	Pagan
Minbu	Magwe
Taungdwingyi	Meiktila
Yamèthin	

Fifth Class District Jail.

Kindat

GENERAL SUPERVISION OF THE JAILS.

The Inspector-General is appointed by the Local Government, and, subject to the orders of the Local Government, is invested with the general control and superintendence of all the prisons situated in Burma, except such as are directly under the governance of the Military authorities.

The Inspector-General of Prisons. He exercises full control over all expenditure in jails, submitting annually to the Government, through the Accountant-General, in such manner and at such time as may be required, an estimate of the amount of funds necessary for their maintenance.

All monthly and other bills for jail expenses of every description are submitted to and audited by him, with the exception of such charges as are regulated by the Public Works Department, charges for stationery supplied by the Stationery Department, and charges for medical stores supplied by the Medical Stores Department. But the Examiner of Public Works Accounts, the Superintendent of Stationery, and the Examiners of Commissariat and Ordnance Accounts respectively furnish him annually with a memorandum of the amount of the charges debitable to each separate jail for incorporation in his departmental reports and accounts.

He may sanction the temporary employment of extra establishment in any jail in case of urgent necessity, but must submit to Government a quarterly return showing in detail any extra

establishment sanctioned under this rule and the necessity for its entertainment. He is empowered to sanction all ordinary working expenses, either for manufactory or general purposes, within the limits of the budget grants.

He passes orders upon all contracts, except those of a petty description, which may be deemed requisite for the supply to jails of food, clothing, and other articles; and no contracts except of a petty description are valid unless sanctioned by him.

He is authorised to sanction estimates for new works and for additions to existing buildings borne on the books of the Public Works Department up to Rs. 500 for any single work within the limit of funds placed at his disposal in the Public Works Department budget.

He must visit every jail in the Province at least once a year, and during these visitations—

- (a) he must inspect all yards, wards, cells, workshops, store-rooms, kitchens, and latrines, noting their state of repair, their sanitary condition, the general security of the jail, and how far the structural arrangements permit of due effect being given to the requisitions of the Prisons Act with respect to the separation of the different classes of prisoners;
- (b) he must examine the garden, inquire into the water-supply and conservancy arrangements, must see that the sick are carefully attended to, and ascertain that the food is of proper quality and quantity;
- (c) he must personally see every prisoner then in confinement in the jail, noting any circumstance of consequence connected with physical condition, adaptation of tasks to physique and class, condition and sufficiency of clothing, employment of fetters, progress under the mark rules and awards under the punishment rules, and must afford to such as desire it a reasonable opportunity of making any application or complaint, investigating and passing orders on all those relating to jail discipline;
- (d) he must inspect the warder establishment and satisfy himself as to its proficiency in drill and musketry, inspect its arms and accoutrements, and test the ability of every jail officer of the upper subordinate establishment to drill the guard. He must closely scrutinise the arrangements for carrying out day and night watch and ward, for the prevention and sup-

pression of riot, and must satisfy himself that the disposition of paid and convict officers is as prescribed and the most effective possible;

- (e) he must compare the rates paid for contingent purchases with the rates obtaining in the local market, and must satisfy himself that economy is practised in their use as well as in the use of all articles supplied by contract;
- (f) he must satisfy himself that all accounts and registers are maintained according to the rules in force for the time being, that proper arrangements are made for the safe custody of all records, and that due regard is paid to all requirements of the Prisons Act and to all rules framed thereunder.

On the completion of the inspection of any jail he must record in the visitors' book a memorandum of the state in which he found it, the manner in which it is administered, the extent to which officers appear familiar with their charges, etc., together with any suggestions he may wish to make and any orders he may issue to the Superintendent. A copy of this memorandum, with any remarks which the Superintendent may have to offer, must be submitted by him to the Local Government.

All jailers, chief and head warders, are appointed by the Inspector-General, and no officer of these grades may be dismissed or removed by any subordinate authority. He may direct the reduction, suspension, removal, dismissal, or transfer from one jail to another, of any jail subordinate.

He is the medium of communication between Government and every officer of the Department, and, unless specially excepted, every communication from any officer of the Department which is intended for the perusal of Government shall be submitted through him.

He submits each year to the Local Government, not later than the 1st of April, a detailed report of the jail administration for the previous calendar year, giving such statistics as may be from time to time prescribed, together with any necessary comments thereon, and such remarks on points of jail management as may seem called for.

Provision is made for the frequent visiting of the jails by official and unofficial visitors. Commissioners of Divisions, Sessions

Inspection by Visitors. Judges, District Magistrates, and a number of other officials are *ex-officio* visitors of jails; and in addition the Local Government nominates as unofficial visitors of specified jails gentlemen of position who

are likely to take an interest in the welfare of the prisoners and are willing to accept the duty. The names of all such non-official visitors are notified from time to time in the *Government Gazette*.

The District Magistrate, when at headquarters, visits the jail at least once a month, likewise the Subdivisional Magistrate the jail at his subdivision. Commissioners as a rule inspect all jails within their jurisdiction when they go on tour.

The District or the Subdivisional Magistrate concerned does not ordinarily interfere in the detailed management of the district jail, but makes such recommendations in the visitors' book as may seem to him advisable, leaving it to the Superintendent to take such action thereon as he thinks fit. The Superintendent of a district jail, however, is bound to obey all orders not inconsistent with the Prisons Act, or any rule thereunder which may be given respecting matters connected with the jail by the Magistrate, and must report to the Inspector-General all such orders and the action taken thereon.

Official and non-official gazetted visitors may call for all books, papers, and records of every department of the jail; they may visit every ward, yard, and cell, and see every prisoner in confinement; and they are required to ascertain whether the rules and orders are adhered to.

Official and non-official gazetted visitors on arrival at a jail are given a copy of the morning report. After completing their inspection, they record in the visitors' book any remarks or suggestions which they may wish to make, and the Superintendent forwards a copy of the record to the Inspector-General for such orders as may be necessary, together with a copy of the morning report. Where the remarks of visitors require explanation from the Superintendent, such explanation must invariably accompany the copy. When obvious errors or infringements of jail rules are pointed out, they must be remedied at once, and, when the remarks have reference to structural defects, extracts relating thereto must be forwarded through the Executive Engineer of the district to the Superintending Engineer of the circle.

With the exception of the superior officers of Government visiting a station and the official and non-official gazetted visitors, no person unconnected with the jail may be admitted into it unless he is accompanied by, or has obtained the written permission of, the District Magistrate or the Superintendent or the Inspector-General.

The system of inspection by official and by non-official visitors makes it reasonably certain that no serious abuses can

long exist in the management of the jails; and the fact that such visits may be made without warning keeps the jail officials constantly under the necessity of having everything in order.

STAFF OF THE JAIL DEPARTMENT: SALARIES AND ALLOWANCES.

The following table shows the staff of the Jail Department of Burma, down to the grade of third-grade jailer, as constituted on January 1, 1906, together with the salaries and allowances paid to each official:—

Officials.	Salary (Rupees per mensem).	Allowance (Rupees per mensem).
Inspector-General of Prisons	1,800	
Superintendents of Central Jails:—		
Rangoon	750	Free quarters and 100
Insein	950	Free quarters and 220
Mandalay	700	100
Thayetmayo	M.S. pay*	House allowance and 250
Myingyan	M.S. pay*	Free quarters and 250
Bassein	M.S. pay*	House allowance and 250
2 Superintendents of First Class District Jails	M.S. pay*	150
4 Superintendents of Second Class District Jails	M.S. pay*	100
4 Superintendents of Third Class District Jails	M.S. pay*	75
14 Superintendents of Fourth Class District Jails	M.S. pay*	50
1 First Class Jailer	370	
6 Second Grade Jailers	160 to 250	
14 Third Grade Jailers	110 to 160	

JAIL OFFICIALS AND THEIR DUTIES.

Each jail is in charge of a Superintendent. The Central Jails at Rangoon and Insein are in charge of officers who devote their whole time to the jail. In other central jails and in all district jails the supervision is vested in the Civil Medical Officer of the station as a collateral charge.

The Superintendents of the Rangoon and Insein Central Jails must be Commissioned Medical Officers.

*Medical Service Pay. These appointments are held by members of the Indian Medical Service or by members of the Uncovenanted Medical Service, and their salaries are charged to the Civil Medical Department. These salaries are stated in the second volume of this work, in the chapter on "Medical and Sanitary Administration of Burma."

The executive management of the jail in all matters relating to internal economy, discipline, labour, expenditure, punishment, and control generally, is vested

Superintendents of Jails. in the Superintendent, subject to the orders and authority of the Inspector-General, and in accordance with the rules sanctioned by the Government.

No whole-time Superintendent of a central jail is confirmed in his appointment until he has passed in Burmese by the lower standard.

Superintendents must make themselves thoroughly acquainted with the Jail Manual, and with all Acts, Regulations, and orders relating to jails, and are responsible for the due observance thereof, and for the execution of all sentences of prisoners committed to their charge.

The Superintendent visits the jail daily, as soon after sunrise as possible, when his first duty is to release time-expired convicts, with due observance of the rules regarding the return of their private property and the grant of subsistence for the journey to their homes. If unable from sickness or any other cause to visit the jail, he must record the fact of his absence and its cause in his order book.

He must satisfy himself frequently that all registers and books prescribed are promptly written up and properly maintained, that the cash balances correspond with those in the books, and that outstanding balances are not allowed to accumulate. He is held responsible for any defalcations on the part of the jail establishment or for any outstanding debts which may become unrealisable, if it be shown that such defalcations or such losses have been rendered possible by neglect on his part of any rule laid down for his guidance.

He must hold a weekly muster of prisoners, preferably on Sunday, at which he must see that the classification is properly attended to, that every prisoner is provided with proper clothing and bedding, that all are clean in person and clothing, and that such as should have them are provided with neck and history tickets.

He must visit the jail at uncertain hours, both by day and night, which visit, with the hour and state of the jail at that time, he must note in his order book.

He must constantly inspect the barracks, yards, cells, workshops, latrines, and every part of the prison, and satisfy himself that all are maintained in the highest possible degree of cleanliness.

He must at uncertain intervals cause the food to be weighed

in his presence, and must satisfy himself that the prisoners obtain their full rations, also that the vegetables supplied to the prisoners are suitable in kind and perfectly fresh and wholesome.

He must once in three months—on the 1st of January, April, July, and October—take stock of all raw material, manufactured articles, plant, tools, clothing, and other property belonging to Government, and must sign the several stock books and registers in token of their correctness, and must submit to the Inspector-General on those dates a certificate of compliance with the above. Any deficiency or irregularity which may be detected must be at once reported to the Inspector-General.

He must lay down in writing the details of work allotted to each of his subordinates, including those employed in the jail office, so that the responsibility for errors in the jail records and for any other dereliction of duty may be fixed with precision and without trouble.

He must see that no more than the authorised percentage of prisoners is employed as jail servants or convict officers, and must not permit any prisoner to be employed in any private capacity either for himself or for any person except as specially provided for by the Jail Manual.

He must enter in his order book all his orders relating to the management and discipline of the jail, and must see that such orders are properly carried out.

He must visit the hospital frequently, and must carry into effect the written directions of the Medical Officer regarding the segregation of prisoners labouring under infectious or contagious diseases or suspected thereof. He must also immediately give directions for cleansing and disinfecting any place occupied by such prisoners, and for washing, disinfecting, fumigating, or destroying any foul or suspected apparel or bedding.

He must carry into effect the written requisitions of the Medical Officer as to the supply of any additional bedding or clothing or alteration of diet for any prisoner, or with respect to any alteration of discipline or treatment in case of any prisoner whose mind or body may appear to require it.

He must report to the Inspector-General, as they occur, any escapes and recaptures, all serious breaches of jail discipline, all suicides and accidental deaths, and all outbreaks of epidemic disease or cases of serious overcrowding.

All jailers, chief and head warders, are appointed by the Inspector-General. In case of serious misconduct the Superintendent may fine or suspend such officers, reporting his action at once to the Inspector-General, without whose orders they

may not be reduced, removed, or dismissed. All other subordinate officers may also be suspended by the Superintendent, but reductions, removals, and dismissals can only be carried out by the Superintendent in consultation with the Group Superintendent (see page 251).

Before inflicting any punishment, except of a petty nature, upon any paid officer of the jail, the Superintendent must hold a formal investigation, during which the accused shall be present, and thereafter shall draw up clearly and briefly in writing a statement of the charges against him. A copy of this statement shall be furnished to the officer affected, who shall be allowed to submit any explanation in regard to the charges made against him that he may desire to offer. This should be submitted in writing. The Superintendent shall, after considering this explanation, record his reasons for any decision at which he may arrive on each charge. These proceedings shall be forwarded to the authority in whom the appointment and dismissal of the officer is vested, but, if the inquiry be held by the Superintendent of a central jail and concerns an officer whose appointment or dismissal is vested in him, he shall himself pass orders in the case, recording them in writing.

All proceedings of a Superintendent in regard to punishments of a serious character are subject to the control and revision of the Inspector-General, who, either on his own motion or on an appeal from any person affected, may call for the record of the case, and pass such orders as may appear to him necessary.

Witnesses at departmental inquiries may not be examined on oath, nor may advocates be allowed to appear at such inquiries without the sanction of the Inspector-General.

The Superintendent of every jail must hold an inquiry touching every offence committed by a prisoner, and punish such offence in accordance with the provisions of the rules in Chapter XVIII. of the Jail Manual (see pages 256-261 of this volume).

He must record with his own hand all orders for punishment, and shall see that the punishment is carried into effect, provided that, when required by the rules, the Medical Officer shall have previously certified that the prisoner to be punished is fit to undergo it.

The Superintendent must submit punctually to the Inspector-General such yearly and other returns, statements, bills, and vouchers as may be from time to time prescribed. As soon as possible after the close of each year he shall furnish the Inspector-General with a report on the administration of the jail,

in which all matters of importance, or possessing a bearing on the jail statistics of the year, shall be noticed.

He shall, as a rule, transact all business connected with the jail within its precincts. He shall not, except in case of necessity, require the attendance of the jailer beyond the jail limits.

The Superintendent shall not himself smoke nor permit any other officer to smoke in any part of the jail at any time, whether on duty or otherwise; neither shall he permit any person visiting the jail to smoke within the jail precincts.

He must see that the following instructions dealing with precautions against fire and the measures to be adopted for its suppression are duly observed:—

(1) That fire signals be arranged for use by day as well as night. (2) That fire brigades be organised and their members trained periodically, say once in every month, in the use of scaling-ladders, water buckets, and in the several duties they would be called on to perform during a conflagration. (3) That all water buckets, tanks, and bathing troughs be kept constantly full, both by day and night, and that the supply of dry earth inside each ward, to be used for extinguishing any lamp which may flare up or burst, is sufficient. (4) That ward keys be kept by night between the gates in such a manner as to be readily accessible and easily distinguishable. (5) That a complete code of instructions for the guidance of paid and convict establishments be drawn up by each Superintendent, and copies hung in some conspicuous place in the jail as well as inside each ward.

Except in the case of the Rangoon and Insein Central Jails, to each of which a special Medical Superintendent is appointed, the Medical Officer of the district or subdivision in which a jail is situated is the Medical Officer of such jail.

Subject to the control of the Superintendent, the Medical Officer has charge of the sanitary administration of the prison, and performs such duties as are detailed in the Jail Manual or as may be prescribed by due authority.

He must visit the jail at least once a day and more frequently if necessary. Every criminal prisoner must, as soon as possible after admission, be examined under the general or special orders of the Medical Officer, who shall enter or cause to be entered in the health register a record of the state of the prisoner's health, his weight, the class of labour he is fit for if sentenced to rigorous imprisonment, and any observations which he thinks fit to add.

He must issue such general or special orders for the search and examination of female prisoners on admission to jail as may seem required. The search must always be carried out by a female in the presence of the Medical Officer or medical subordinate.

He must daily, as soon after sunrise as convenient, visit the sick in hospital, and examine prisoners complaining of illness, and admit them, if necessary, to hospital, or, if it seems suitable, recommend any variation of diet, or that they be placed on light labour or exempted from work. In cases of malingering he must at once make a report to the Superintendent.

He must visit at least once a day every prisoner detained in a solitary confinement cell for more than twenty-four hours, whether as a punishment or otherwise, as well as every prisoner on penal diet.

Whenever the Medical Officer has reason to believe that the mind of a prisoner is, or is likely to be, injuriously affected by the discipline or treatment to which he is subjected, he must submit a report to the Superintendent. This report, with the orders of the Superintendent thereon, must forthwith be sent to the Inspector-General for information.

He must vaccinate or cause to be vaccinated every healthy prisoner, whether previously protected or not, as soon as convenient after admission into jail. In the case of prisoners received in a bad or an indifferent state of health, vaccination or revaccination may be postponed. Revaccination is, however, not necessary when the Medical Officer can satisfy himself from jail records that a prisoner has been successfully vaccinated within a period of seven years.

He must from time to time examine the labouring prisoners while they are employed, and must at least once in every fortnight record or cause to be recorded on the history ticket of each prisoner employed on labour the weight of such prisoner at the time. These weighments may be conducted by hospital assistants or by jailers, but the Medical Officer must frequently check them, and he is answerable for their accuracy.

When the Medical Officer is of opinion that the health of any prisoner suffers from employment on any kind or class of labour, such prisoner shall not be employed on that labour, but shall be placed on such other kind or class of labour as the Medical Officer may consider suited to him.

He must once at least in every week inspect every part of the jail, and ascertain that nothing exists therein likely to be

injurious to the health of the prisoners, and especially that drainage is satisfactory, that the water-supply is in no way polluted, that due precautions against overcrowding are taken, and that the ventilation and cleanliness of the barracks, yards, latrines, etc., are provided for and properly attended to. He must also frequently inspect the cook-rooms and test the weight and quality of the rations, both before and after cooking.

He must make a weekly inspection of all the prisoners so as to ascertain their general state of health, that they are fit for the class of labour on which they are employed, clean in person, free from disease, and provided with adequate clothing and bedding. He must see that prisoners losing weight are paraded apart from the others, so that their cases may receive special attention.

He must keep an official minute book, in which he must enter all recommendations he has to make relative to the health of any prisoner or of the prisoners generally, the result of his daily and weekly inspections, and all suggestions regarding the general sanitary state of the jail, for the information and guidance of the Superintendent. Under ordinary circumstances this minute book shall be produced before the Superintendent every morning, but matters of urgency must be brought to the notice of the Superintendent or Jailer without delay. When the Superintendent is himself the Medical Officer, he must issue orders instead of making suggestions or recommendations.

He must keep or cause to be kept—

(a) a register of sick, in which he shall enter, or cause to be entered, the names of all prisoners admitted in hospital; (b) a register of casualties, in which shall be recorded in detail the result of all *post-mortem* examinations; (c) a register of all prisoners in the "convalescent" and "special" gangs; all prisoners admitted to jail in indifferent health (the very aged and infirm and the convalescents should be placed in these gangs: the register should show the date of admission and discharge from the gang, and the diet ordered); (d) a health register showing particulars of the state of health of all prisoners on admission and on discharge; (e) a table showing particulars year by year as to—

- (1) capacity of jail;
- (2) daily average population of all classes;
- (3) total deaths;
- (4) total death-rate per mille;
- (5) death-rate per mille from cholera;

- (6) Remarks. [Under this head should be shown (a) chief death causes, (b) if cholera occurred, evidence of importation or otherwise, (c) changes in articles of diet, (d) additional clothing issued, (e) changes in source of water-supply, (f) boiling of drinking water, etc.]

He must furnish the Administrative Medical Officer with the prescribed periodical reports and returns of sickness and mortality when they become due, and with such other reports or returns as he may from time to time be required to submit.

The Medical Officer's duties and responsibilities in connection with punishment awards are detailed under sections 50 and 53 of the Prisons Act, 1894, and are further described in the Jail Manual.

He must give written directions for separating from the healthy prisoners those who are suffering or suspected to be suffering from infectious complaints, for cleansing or disinfecting any ward or cell, and for cleansing or destroying any clothing or bedding.

He must forward at once to the Administrative Medical Officer and to the Inspector-General, through the Superintendent, notice of the appearance of any case of infectious disease or such as may be likely to assume an epidemic form, and must send like intimation whenever the number of sick in hospital has reached 10 per cent. of the jail population.

He must keep a special record of cases of cholera, and in cases of outbreaks of epidemic violence he must forward duplicate copies at the close of each outbreak, one for record in the office of the Administrative Medical Officer, the other for transmission to the Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India. If the disease has been limited to an isolated case or cases, the form shall be submitted in duplicate at the close of the year in which the case or cases occurred. All cholera reports must be written at the time, the one on sporadic cases being filed with the cholera register for submission at the end of the year.

Whenever the mortality in the jail during any month exceeds one per cent., he must record on the back of the monthly return of sick prisoners his explanation; and in cases of unusual mortality he must submit a special report on the subject to the Administrative Medical Officer through the Inspector-General.

On the death of any prisoner the Medical Officer must forth-

with record in a register the following particulars, so far as they can be ascertained, namely:—

(a) the day on which the deceased first complained of illness or was observed to be ill; (b) the labour, if any, on which he was engaged on that day; (c) the scale of his diet on that day; (d) the day on which he was admitted to hospital; (e) the day on which the Medical Officer was first informed of the illness; (f) the nature of the disease; (g) when the deceased was last seen before his death by the Medical Officer or medical subordinate; (h) when the prisoner died; and (i) full particulars of *post-mortem* appearances, together with such special remarks as the examination may call for.

He must visit and supervise the jail garden, and see that adequate arrangements are made in due season for the plentiful supply throughout the year of fresh vegetables, condiments, and antiscorbutic fruits, and may recommend weak or convalescent prisoners for work in the garden.

He must prepare and submit for the sanction of the Administrative Medical Officer a yearly indent for medicines and stores. He must keep, or cause to be kept, a register of medicines, instruments, and appliances, which shall be available at any time for the check or inspection of his stock. He must see that poisons are kept in a separate box, drawer, or almirah under lock and key, and that each bottle is properly labelled and distinguished, and that a printed list of poisons is hung up in a conspicuous place adjoining. He must from time to time examine all the medicines kept in store, in order to assure himself of their purity. He is held responsible that all European medicines, instruments, etc., debited to the jail, and all bazaar medicines and medical stores charged in the jail accounts, are duly and faithfully expended for the use of the jail. Orders for diet and all other articles required in the Medical Department must be signed by the Medical Officer.

He shall occasionally inspect the camping and burying grounds of the jail, and shall acquaint himself with the procedure to be adopted on the appearance of epidemics among the prisoners. The procedure to be adopted on the appearance of epidemics among the prisoners is laid down in great detail in Chapter XXXVII. of the Jail Manual.

The Superintendent may place at the disposal of the Medical Officer a certain number of well-conducted prisoners for employment as convict hospital attendants. Such prisoners shall be selected from those who have completed at least half their sentences.

Under section 3 (8) of the Prisons Act, Medical Subordinate means an Assistant Surgeon, Apothecary, or qualified Hospital Assistant. The appointment of medical subordinates to jails within the strength sanctioned by the Local Government rests with the Administrative Medical Officer.

If the jail is his only charge, the Hospital Assistant must reside in or near the jail so as to be available at all times. He must not engage in private practice or be absent without leave from the Medical Officer, which shall be notified to the Superintendent.

Any of the punishments detailed below may be awarded to medical subordinates doing duty in jails:—

(a) Reprimand or extra duty not exceeding 12 hours; (b) fine not exceeding 5 days' pay and allowances in a month; (c) deprivation of approved service or other additional allowances; (d) deprivation of leave; (e) stoppage of promotion to a higher grade for a period not exceeding one year.

Punishment (a) may be awarded by the Medical Officer; (b), (c), (d), and (e) may be awarded only with the previous concurrence of the Administrative Medical Officer and must be recorded in the medical subordinate's service-book.

Any Hospital Assistant accused of taking a bribe or allowing forbidden indulgences to prisoners may be suspended by the Superintendent, and the case must be reported for the orders of the Inspector-General.

In the absence of the Medical Officer the Hospital Assistant attached to the jail, if he be the senior medical subordinate of the station, performs the duties prescribed for that officer.

The following rules for the guidance of medical subordinates are published in the Jail Manual:—

(1) In all matters connected with the feeding, clothing, and medical treatment of hospital patients or other professional duties, the Medical Subordinate shall obey the orders of the Medical Officer; but in matters connected with the maintenance of discipline and order in the jail he shall obey the orders of the Superintendent and the Jailer. In central jails the Medical Subordinate shall report to the Medical Officer in his report book all orders given to him by the Superintendent or Jailer.

(2) In jails where there are two or more Medical Subordinates, they shall be on duty alternately in such manner and for such hours as the Medical Officer may direct; provided that one or other of them shall always be present throughout the day, and that the one on duty shall not leave the jail until he has been replaced by the other, except when one of them is sick and unfit for duty. They shall also be required to sleep in turn in the hospital from 10

P.M. until the unlocking of the jail. They shall be present in the jail together whilst the Medical Officer is attending the sick and at such times as he considers necessary. In jails where there is only one Medical Subordinate, whose sole duty is to attend to the jail, he shall be present in the jail throughout the day except when allowed to be absent for meals. In cases where the Medical Subordinate attached to a neighbouring institution attends to the jail, he shall visit the jail early in the morning before attending to other duties, and again in the evening before lock-up time. When there is any case of serious disease, the Medical Subordinate should visit the hospital frequently at night and see that the prescribed medicines and food have been distributed and must be prepared at all times to attend when his services are called for.

(3) At the opening of the wards he shall at once see any prisoners who complain of sickness. If necessary, he will send them at once to hospital, but, if he thinks this unnecessary, he will bring them to the notice of the Medical Officer on his arrival. He shall also see that medicines are distributed to prisoners of the out-going gangs who need them, and shall then go round the hospital visiting each patient and doing whatever is needful for him, at the same time making notes of the condition or progress of the cases on the bed-head tickets for the information of the Medical Officer.

(4) He shall every morning visit the "convalescent" and "special" gangs and prisoners kept under observation, and see that medicines are distributed to those requiring them, and that they get the special food, clothing, bedding, and rest ordered for them. If any prisoner is removed from the "convalescent" or "special" gang without the authority of the Medical Officer, he shall report the matter to the Medical Officer.

(5) He shall visit all prisoners confined in cells daily, and report to the Medical Officer any complaints that may have been made to him.

(6) He shall be responsible that all poisons are kept under lock and key in a box, drawer, or almirah and the key retained by him; that all bottles or vessels containing any of the drugs named in the list of poisons shall be labelled "Poison." He shall keep poisons separate from all other drugs, and on no account shall any poison be placed among other medicines, even though it has been labelled or its nature otherwise indicated, nor shall any non-poisonous drug be placed in the poison box, drawer, or almirah. The poison box, drawer, or almirah, shall always be kept locked. He shall on no account allow convict attendants to handle phials or vessels containing poison. A printed list of poisons, copies of which can be obtained on indent from the Superintendent, Government Printing, Burma, should be hung near the poison box, drawer, or almirah.

(7) He shall write up the hospital diet book, will make the necessary indents on the proper jail officers, and will see that the food for the sick is properly prepared and distributed.

(8) He shall keep all the hospital registers written up to date, shall punctually prepare and submit to the Medical Officer monthly and other returns, and be generally responsible for the hospital records.

(9) He shall be responsible that the surgical instruments are kept in good order, and for the safe-keeping and cleanliness of clothing, bedding, blankets,

etc., issued for use in the hospital. Any deficiency in stock should be reported to the Medical Officer.

(10) He shall be responsible for the maintenance of cleanliness, order, and discipline in the hospital, that all jail rules are strictly observed in it, that hospital attendants do their duty, and also that any want of, or excess of, hospital attendants is brought to notice.

(11) He shall carefully watch all prisoners who may possibly be malingering, and bring such cases to the notice of the Medical Officer. All prisoners who are suspected to be insane shall be examined by him daily, and a report of their mental condition submitted to the Medical Officer.

(12) He shall frequently be present at the various parades, and separate, for treatment, any prisoner whose appearance or manner denotes that he is not in his usual health.

(13) He shall arrange that all cases of bowel-complaint are treated in a separate ward, and that the evacuations of such patients are laid out for the Medical Officer's inspection in such a way as to leave no doubt as to the identity of the patients who passed them severally. After examination by the Medical Officer he shall see that such evacuations are properly disinfected and disposed of. When the Medical Officer visits the jail, the Medical Subordinate shall accompany him on his rounds and take notes of any order given by him regarding the treatment of the sick or the sanitation of the jail.

(14) He shall carefully examine all new admissions to the jail, and under the Medical Officer's supervision record in the health register their state of health, weight, etc. He will satisfy himself that the private clothing of newly admitted prisoners is cleansed and disinfected, if necessary, before removal to the godown.

(15) Under instructions of the Medical Officer he shall see that every unprotected healthy prisoner and infant in jail is vaccinated as soon as possible after admission and the results duly and carefully recorded on the history ticket and in a register maintained for that purpose. In case of infants the entry may be made in the history ticket of the mother.

(16) If he has reason to believe that any female prisoner is pregnant, he shall report the circumstance to the Medical Officer.

(17) He shall at once bring to the notice both of the Medical Officer and Superintendent any case of cholera or of infectious disease. In case of serious injury from accident, or where a major operation is necessary, he shall at once communicate with the Medical Officer, and every serious injury to a prisoner from an accident should at once be reported to the Superintendent.

(18) He shall inspect the food godowns and kitchens daily, see that they, and all vessels for cooking or distributing food, are clean, and that all food material, vegetables, etc., are of good quality, properly husked, washed, and prepared, and sufficient in quantity. He shall keep samples of anything he considers to be unwholesome for the Medical Officer's inspection. He will see that milk is properly boiled before issue to the prisoners; and also inspect the food supplied to civil prisoners or to under-trial prisoners by their friends.

(19) He shall examine all food before it is distributed; also see that it is properly cooked, and that the proper quantity of oil, salt, and antiscorbutics

have been added to each ration. He shall bring to the notice of the Medical Officer any prisoner who frequently leaves a considerable portion of the food supplied to him, especially cases in which it appears that this is caused by failing health or is purposely done in order to cause reduction of weight on the day of weighment.

(20) He shall periodically examine the wells, tanks, or other sources of water-supply, and shall bring to notice any deficiency of supply or likelihood of the water being polluted. He shall daily examine the filters, water-boilers, and all vessels in which water for drinking or cooking is stored or conveyed, and see that they are clean and in good working order.

(21) He shall daily inspect all latrines and urinals and see that they are kept clean, that the conservancy rules are carried out, and that a sufficient quantity of dry earth is used and stored. He shall also see that the orders about ventilation of hospital wards, sleeping barracks, and workshops are properly attended to according to the season of the year; that the prisoners while sleeping are not exposed to direct draughts or the fall of rain, and that all the batten doors are freely opened during the day.

(22) The sheds in which milch cows are kept shall be examined by him daily. He shall see that these places are kept clean and free from smell, and that the vessels for boiling or holding milk are clean and fit for use. He shall keep a daily record of the quantity of milk obtained from the jail cows, and of its expenditure, and shall report to the Superintendent any instance in which it is not all expended for the benefit of the sick or in improving the diet of the prisoners.

(23) The fortnightly weighment of all prisoners, as well as the weekly weighment of those who are infirm or losing weight, shall be made by the senior Medical Subordinate, who shall record with his own hand the weight of each prisoner on his history ticket. In central jails he may be assisted by the junior Hospital Assistant (if there is one), or by a Jailer deputed by the Superintendent. All prisoners steadily losing weight shall be reported to the Medical Officer not later than the day after weighment.

(24) He shall report all deaths at once to the Medical Officer through the Jailer, see that the body is decently removed to the dead-house, make the necessary preparations for *post-mortem* examination, assist the Medical Officer in making such examination, and will be responsible that the body is afterwards properly stitched up and covered.

(25) He shall, under the directions of the Medical Officer, afford medical aid to all the jail staff, warders, guards, and others living on the jail premises.

(26) In addition to his own proper duties as above detailed, he will render the Medical Officer every assistance, exercising general vigilance over all matters which can in any way affect the health of any of the inmates of the jail, and reporting to the Medical Officer any instance in which he believes that rules affecting the health of the prisoners have been infringed; as, for example, in such matters as the following:—

- (a) Overcrowding of wards, workshops, or other spaces.
- (b) Incorrect weighment or distribution of food.
- (c) Unseasonable, worn-out, or dirty clothing.

- (d) Neglect of personal cleanliness.
- (e) Undue exposure of prisoners to wet or sun.
- (f) Unpunctuality or curtailment of meals.
- (g) Neglect of air, dry, or clean bedding.
- (h) Unsuitable tasks, especially in the case of weakly men.
- (i) The use of workshops as dormitories or *vice versa*.
- (j) Short or incorrect issue of important articles of diet, such as salt, spices, oils, and antiscorbutics.

(27) In central jails, where the Medical Subordinate must spend more time in regular hospital duties than is necessary in district jails, his visits to all the wards, latrines, and urinals, and to see the condition of the water and milk receptacles, need not be made daily, but at such intervals as the Medical Officer may direct. The Medical Subordinate must in all cases give his constant attention to these matters, and will be held personally responsible for any irregularity regarding them.

The duties of a jailer in Burma are such as are ordinarily performed by such officials elsewhere; and as such they call for no special comment. Broadly speaking, the duties of the jailer are to attend to the execution of the orders of his superior officers, and to carry out the general routine of the jail. The jailer is assisted in his work by the warders, to each of whom is assigned some particular task, such as the charge of a particular ward or workshop or of a particular gang of prisoners. The posts and duties of warders are frequently changed so as to prevent any formation of permanent relations with the prisoners.

Every member of the subordinate establishment of a jail, except such as belong to the medical staff or are specially entertained for manufactory purposes, must undergo a thorough training in squad drill and in the use of the arms provided for them.

Military Drill for Jail Officials. For this purpose a warder qualified for the duty holds a drill parade for at least half an hour every day. When jailers have acquired a knowledge of their drill, they are required to attend parade only once a week. At least once a month the whole reserve staff not actually on duty is inspected and drilled before the Superintendent, and on these occasions practice with blank cartridges ordinarily takes place. The whole of the jailer and warder establishment must in turn undergo a thorough musketry course, including target practice.

Excluding those belonging to the medical and manufacture staff, every jail official, from the jailer down to the lowest grade warder, is required to furnish security, the amount being fixed at a year's pay for jailers, and at half a year's pay for all other subordinates. The only forms of security which are accepted by the Government are Government promissory notes or Postal Savings Bank Deposits. The full amount of the security may be deposited in a single payment, or may at any time be made up by one or more payments, or by monthly deductions of 10 per cent. from the officer's pay.

Every officer depositing security is required to sign a security bond for the due performance of any duty required of him, and is strictly bound by the conditions and penalties set forth in the bond; but no officer forfeits any part of his security without the sanction and order of the Inspector-General.

APPOINTMENTS AND PROMOTION IN THE JAIL DEPARTMENT.

All appointments to the subordinate staff of the Jail Department are probationary for six months, and at the end of that time the services of any newly appointed subordinate officer who has failed to qualify in drill and in the knowledge of his duties may be dispensed with.

For the purpose of promotion the subordinate staff of the Jail Department is divided into Upper Subordinate and Lower Subordinate. To the former belong jailers, chief warders, and head warders; to the latter warders below the rank of chief or head warder.

No promotion among the upper subordinates is made without the sanction of the Inspector-General. For the purpose of enabling the Inspector-General to determine whether such promotion should be sanctioned, the character and the services of each jailer, chief, and head warder is reported twice annually to him. Details as to conduct and qualifications of apprentice jailers are included in this return. Any unfavourable remarks contained in these reports must be duly communicated to the subordinates concerned, so that they may know their failings and endeavour to improve. Subordinates are discouraged from the practice of soliciting promotion and representing their own claims for preferment.

Superintendents are empowered to determine whether a sub-

ordinate officer on progressive salary is entitled to his annual increment. These increments are not granted as a matter of course.

It is distinctly understood that promotions to the different grades are made, as far as possible, by merit, and not by seniority. Chief and head warders are superior servants in the sense of the Civil Service Regulations. Vacancies, as a rule, are filled by promotion from the staff of warders.

To insure efficiency in warder establishments and to equalise promotion, the staff of warders is subdivided into groups. Each group consists of warders attached to certain district jails associated with those of a particular central or district jail, the Superintendent of which (subject to the supervision of the Inspector-General) exercises control regarding promotions and transfers of members belonging to his group.

Every Superintendent of a jail may enlist his complement of warders of the third grade. On enlistment of any member of such grade at a district jail, the officer in charge must at once send to the Group Superintendent a descriptive roll, giving particulars of name and father's name, residence, age, height, personal description, whether he can read and write, and date of enlistment. Preference should be given to warders who can read and write.

A Group Superintendent has the names of all warders belonging to his group entered on his promotion board in the form subjoined:—

(1) Grade. (2) Name. (3) Date of joining Government service. (4) Date of appointment to Jail Department. (5) Date of promotion to present grade. (6) Date of appointment to present post. (7) Salary. (8) Whether passed in Burmese, and, if so, by what standard. (9) Jail to which attached. (10) State of education. (11) Remarks.

Entries are made in the order of date of enlistment, and according to the position each holds in his grade, and, whenever a vacancy occurs in any grade higher than the third in his jail or in his group of jails, the Group Superintendent regulates promotion thereby. Even though his name heads the list, no third grade warder can be promoted until he becomes efficient in drill and in other branches of his duties.

THE DISCIPLINE OF JAIL OFFICIALS.

The Superintendent of every jail is authorised to punish offences, other than criminal offences, committed by the jailer

and other subordinate officers by deferring payment of salary for not more than fifteen days, by fines not exceeding in any one month half a month's pay, or by suspension not exceeding one month. All fines inflicted are deducted in the pay bill from the pay next due. In case of infliction of a fine upon a jailer, or of his suspension, a report is made to the Inspector-General for information and record in his office, and, whenever the offence is of so serious a nature as to necessitate a recommendation for removal or dismissal, the procedure detailed on page 239 is followed. A similar report is also made in the case of chief or head warders fined or suspended. In the case of warders, other than chief or head warders, Superintendents may impose a fine, cancel or defer any leave due, order extra drill up to a maximum of one hour a day, or suspend from duty, but no reduction in grade, removal, or dismissal may be ordered without the previous concurrence of the Group Superintendent.

The Group Superintendent is authorised to punish any warder, other than a chief or head warder belonging to his group with removal, dismissal, degradation, or transfer to any jail within the group, with forfeiture of travelling allowance.

Every jailer or other subordinate officer who is guilty of any violation of duty or wilful breach or neglect of any rule of the Jail Manual, or of any lawful order issued by a superior officer, or withdraws from the duties of his office without permission, or without giving two months, previous notice, or who wilfully overstays any leave granted to him, or who without permission engages in any employment other than his prison duty, or is guilty of cowardice, is liable to prosecution under the Prisons Act, and on conviction before a Magistrate may be punished with a fine not exceeding Rs. 200 or to imprisonment for a period not exceeding three months, or to both.

Subordinate officers who commit any of the following offences are ordinarily punished by dismissal, or in serious cases, when there is sufficient evidence to obtain conviction, are prosecuted under the Prisons Act:—

(a) appearing on duty or otherwise in a state of intoxication; (b) sleeping on duty; (c) striking a prisoner, except in self-defence or in defence of another, or for the repression of violence; (d) improperly entering or permitting any person to enter the female enclosure; (e) committing or conniving at irregularities in the supply or distribution of food; (f) having dealings with any prisoner or prisoner's friend; (g) employing a prisoner for private purposes; (h) insubordination or insolence towards any superior officer.

For the following offences a prosecution must be instituted against the offender, provided the evidence is such as to make a conviction probable; if the evidence is not sufficient for this, but is sufficient to produce a reasonable belief of the guilt of the officer in the mind of the Superintendent, he must hold an inquiry in the manner described on page 239:—

(a) wilfully or negligently permitting an escape; (b) any offence under section 42 of the Prisons Act relating to the introduction of, or to supply to prisoners of, forbidden articles, unauthorised communication with prisoners and abetment of such offences; (c) being concerned directly or indirectly with any contract for supplies for the jail, or receiving any present from a supplier; (d) leaving the service without giving due notice.

No offence of this character can be ignored, condoned, or punished departmentally with a mere fine. Nor is it necessary before instituting criminal proceedings to obtain the previous sanction of the Inspector-General.

Appeals from the decisions of Superintendents lie to, and are disposed of by, the Inspector-General. Appeals are not attended to by the Inspector-General unless accompanied by a copy of the Superintendent's order. Appeals from jail officers still in the department must be forwarded through the Superintendent of the particular jail to which the appellant is or was attached.

All parties affected by an order of punishment are entitled to have, on application, a copy of it duly attested by the Superintendent. Such copies must contain full details of the grounds of the decision.

EMPLOYMENT OF CONVICTS AS JAIL OFFICIALS.

There are three grades of convict officers,—namely, watchmen, overseers, and warders,—appointments to which are made by the Superintendent.

For the faithful compliance with orders and the due performance of such duties as may be imposed upon them, convict officers are rewarded as provided for under the mark system, for which see page 265. All such officers, until full opportunity has been afforded them of acquiring a knowledge of their duties and responsibilities, are treated with special consideration and forbearance.

All convict officers are paraded together apart from ordinary prisoners after the weekly inspection. The opportunity is taken

to explain to them the advantages of their position, to instruct them in their duties, to praise those who have done well, and to promote the most eligible to vacancies in the higher grades, and to punish such as have committed faults during the previous week.

No prisoner may be appointed a watchman who does not possess the following qualifications: that he belongs to the

Convict Watchmen. A* class; that he has completed one-sixth of his sentence; that he has been well behaved and industrious; and, if under the mark rules, that he has earned at least two-thirds of the available marks; that he is physically fit to do two or three hours' night duty in addition to his ordinary day labour; and that he has not been convicted of *thuggi*, drugging, or of unnatural offence.

The general duties of a convict watchman are to assist the convict overseer in watch and ward, and in maintaining order and discipline inside the wards at night, to prevent prisoners leaving their beds except with permission and for a necessary purpose, to keep silence in the wards, and to take care that all the prisoners are present, and, whenever challenged by the patrol, to count the prisoners and reply. By day he must perform such task as is allotted him, and render such assistance to the warder or overseer in charge of his gang as he may require. Convict watchmen may also be employed as messengers within the jail walls and to escort prisoners from one part of a jail to another when necessary, and also to watch the jail walls in order to give notice of any prisoner suspiciously lurking near them. They may also be put in charge of the under-trial prisoners' ward or of part of a gang inside a jail in cases when a gang has to be divided and work in two places.

Convict watchmen wear ordinary prison clothing; but they are provided with white cotton caps in addition.

No prisoner is eligible for promotion to a convict overseership unless he comes under the mark rules, has served one-sixth of

Convict Overseers. his sentence as a convict watchman, during which time he has earned at least two-thirds of the available marks, and is physically capable of performing such duties as may be required of him.

The number of convict overseers may not exceed 10 per cent. of the jail population, but a minimum number of six may be appointed in each jail.

The Superintendent fixes the duties of convict overseers, but

*Convicts in class A are casual criminals, those in class B are habitual criminals.

the assignment of individual men for the posts is left to the jailer. It is the special duty of all convict overseers—

- (a) to assist the convict warders of their gangs in superintending the prisoners at work, conducting them to parades, maintaining discipline and silence, and keeping them together and in files when moving from place to place;
- (b) to share with other convict officers the duty of guarding the wards by inside and, in special cases, by outside patrol during the night;
- (c) to count frequently the prisoners made over to them, to see that the number is correct, and to search them and to prevent them receiving or retaining forbidden articles;
- (d) to escort individual prisoners about the jail and to take them to hospital when necessary;
- (e) to keep the history tickets of the prisoners of their gangs;
- (f) to give notice of any breaches of jail rules, plots or conspiracies that may come to their knowledge, whether amongst prisoners of their own or of other gangs;
- (g) to report all cases of sickness, and every prisoner who uses the latrine (except for the purpose of urinating) out of regular hours;
- (h) to see that every prisoner properly folds up and arranges his bedding in the morning before the wards are opened;
- (i) to see that prisoners wash themselves and their clothes, and keep their neck-rings and leg-irons clean and bright, and that they do not barter, alter, or damage their clothing;
- (j) to assist in quelling any outbreak and to defend any official in case of necessity;
- (k) to obey all orders issued by the Superintendent, Jailer, or other superior officer.

Convict overseers, in addition to the ordinary prison dress, are provided with blue cotton caps. They wear on their left arm a brass badge engraved with the word "Overseer," and serially numbered from 1 upwards. They may not carry any cane or weapon, except when on patrol or extra-mural guard, when they are armed with bâtons.

Convict overseers are exempted from having their heads shaved and beards clipped and from wearing neck-rings.

No prisoner is eligible for promotion to a convict wardership unless he is under a sentence of at least three years, and unless

Convict Warders. he has served one-sixth of his sentence as a convict overseer, during which time he has earned at least two-thirds of the available marks.

Convict warders, besides assisting paid warders in guarding and working extra-mural gangs, in patrolling outside the wards

at night and in other ways, when their duties are the same as are prescribed for the paid officers whom they assist, may—

- (a) have control over a certain number of subordinate convict officers with their charges inside the jail and shall see that the duties assigned to these officers are faithfully performed; or
- (b) may have charge of a section of the jail or workyard, and shall be responsible for its orderly and sanitary condition, for the observance of jail rules by its occupants, and for the exclusion therefrom of such as do not, and for the detention therein of such as do, belong to it; or
- (c) may have charge of a convict night watch and shall be answerable during the watch for the conduct of all subordinate officers and prisoners in the ward; but
- (d) whatever their special duty may happen to be, they shall assist the jail authorities in every way in their power in maintaining discipline and in enforcing compliance with jail rules not only amongst their own, but likewise among the charges of other officers, if necessary and possible.

Convict warders are permitted to eat their food apart from the other prisoners, and sleep in places specially allotted to them; and they are supplied with a uniform. In addition to being exempt from having their heads shaved and their beards clipped, and from wearing a neck-ring, convict warders are permitted to use tobacco, but under circumstances that will not permit of their supplying other prisoners with the indulgence. As a punishment for minor offences, the indulgence may be temporarily or permanently withheld.

For any grave offence or the frequent repetition of a minor offence a convict officer may be degraded by the Superintendent, subject to the confirmation of the Inspector-General; but in every such case a departmental inquiry must be held by the Superintendent, and a report submitted to the Inspector-General.

PRISON OFFENCES AND THEIR PUNISHMENT.

Under the Prisons Act, 1894, the following acts are declared to be prison offences when committed by a prisoner:—

- Offences against the Prisons Act. (1) such wilful disobedience of any regulation of the prison as shall have been declared by rules to be a prison offence (see next section); (2) any assault or use of criminal force; (3) the use of insulting or threatening language; (4) immoral or indecent or disorderly behaviour; (5) wilfully disabling himself from

labour; (6) contumaciously refusing to work; (7) filing, cutting, altering, or removing handcuffs, fetters, or bars without due authority; (8) wilful idleness or negligence at work by any prisoner sentenced to rigorous imprisonment; (9) wilful mismanagement of work by any prisoner sentenced to rigorous imprisonment; (10) wilful damage to prison property; (11) tampering with or defacing history tickets, records, or documents; (12) receiving, possessing, or transferring any prohibited article; (13) feigning illness; (14) wilfully bringing a false accusation against any officer or prisoner; (15) omitting or refusing to report, as soon as it comes to his knowledge, the occurrence of any fire, any plot or conspiracy, any escape, attempt or preparation to escape, and any attack or preparation for attack upon any prisoner or prison official; and (16) conspiring to escape or to assist in escaping or to commit any other of the offences aforesaid.

The following acts are forbidden, and every prisoner who wilfully commits any of the following acts is deemed to have wilfully disobeyed the regulations of the prison, and to have committed a prison offence:—

**Offences against
Prison Regulations.**

(1) talking during working hours, or talking loudly, laughing, or singing at any time after having been ordered by an officer of the prison to desist; (2) quarrelling with any other prisoner; (3) secreting any article whatever; (4) showing disrespect to any jail officer or official visitor; (5) making groundless complaints; (6) answering untruthfully any question put by an officer of the prison or an official visitor; (7) holding any communication (in writing, by word of mouth, or otherwise) with an outsider, with a prisoner of the opposite sex, civil or under-trial prisoner, or a prisoner of a different class, in disobedience of the regulations of the prison; (8) abetting the commission of any prison offence; (9) omitting to assist in the maintenance of discipline by failing to report any prison offence or to give assistance to an officer of the prison when called on to do so; (10) doing any act or using any language calculated to wound or offend the feelings and prejudices of a fellow-prisoner; (11) doing any act calculated to create any unnecessary alarm in the minds of the prisoners or officers of the prison; (12) leaving without permission of an officer of the prison the gang to which he is attached, or the part of the prison in which he is confined; (13) leaving without permission of an officer of the prison the ward, the yard, the place in file, the seat or berth assigned to him; (14) loitering about the yards or lingering in the wards when these are open; (15) omitting or refusing to march in file when moving about the prison; (16) visiting the latrines or bath-

ing platforms except at stated hours or without permission of an officer of the prison, or resorting unnecessarily to the night latrine, or omitting or refusing to employ dry earth in the manner directed by the prison regulations; (17) refusing to eat the food prescribed by the prison diet scale; (18) eating or appropriating any food not assigned to him, or taking from or adding to the portions assigned to other prisoners; (19) removing without permission of an officer of the prison food from the cook-room or godowns, or from the place where meals are served, or disobeying any order as to the issue and distribution of food and drink; (20) wilfully destroying food, or throwing it away without orders; (21) introducing into food or drink anything likely to render it unpalatable or unwholesome; (22) omitting or refusing to wear the clothing given to him, or exchanging any portion of it for the clothing of other prisoners, or losing, discarding, damaging, or altering any part of it; (23) removing, defacing, or altering any distinctive number, mark, or badge attached to, or worn on, the clothing or person; (24) omitting or refusing to keep the person clean, or disobeying any order regulating the cutting of hair or nails; (25) omitting or refusing to keep clothing, blankets, bedding, fetters, neck-rings, neck-tickets, iron cups or platters clean, or disobeying any order as to the arrangement or disposition of such articles; (26) tampering in any way with prison locks, lamps, or lights, or other property with which he has no concern; (27) stealing the prison clothing or any part of the prison kit of any other prisoner; (28) committing a nuisance in any part of the prison; (29) spitting on or otherwise soiling any floor, door, wall, or other part of the prison building or any article in the prison; (30) wilfully befouling the wells, latrines, washing or bathing places; (31) damaging the trees and vegetables in the garden of the jail, or maltreating the prison cattle; (32) omitting or refusing to take due care of all prison property intrusted to him; (33) omitting or refusing to take due care of, or injuring, destroying, or misappropriating the materials and implements intrusted to him for work; (34) omitting to report at once any loss, breakage, or injury which he may accidentally have caused to prison property or implements; (35) manufacturing any article without the knowledge or permission of an officer of the prison; (36) performing any portion of the task allotted to another prisoner, or obtaining the assistance of another prisoner in the performance of his own task; (37) appropriating any portion of the task performed by another prisoner; (38) mixing or adding any foreign substance to the materials issued for work; (39) wilfully causing to himself any illness, injury, or disability;

(40) causing or omitting to assist in suppressing violence or insubordination of any kind; (41) taking part in any attack upon any prisoner or officer of the prison; (42) omitting or refusing to help any officer of the prison in case of an attempted escape, or of an attack upon such officer or upon another prisoner; (43) disobeying any lawful order of an officer of the prison, or omitting or refusing to perform duties in the manner prescribed.

Under the Prisoners Act, 1894, the Superintendent may examine any prisoner touching any offence specified above, and may determine thereupon and punish such offence by—

- Various Forms of Punishment.
- (1) a formal warning;
 - (2) change of labour to some more irksome or severe form;
 - (3) hard labour for a period not exceeding seven days in the case of convicted criminal prisoners not sentenced to rigorous imprisonment;
 - (4) such loss of privileges admissible under the remission system for the time being in force as may be prescribed by rules made by the Governor-General in Council;
 - (5) the substitution of gunny or other coarse fabric for clothing of other material, not being woollen, for a period which shall not exceed three months;
 - (6) imposition of handcuffs of such pattern and weight, in such manner, and for such period as may be prescribed by rules made by the Governor-General in Council;
 - (7) imposition of fetters of such pattern and weight, in such manner, and for such period as may be prescribed by rules made by the Governor-General in Council.

The following rules have been prescribed:—

1. The following classes of fetters may be used in prisons:—

- (a) Link fetters composed of a chain and ankle-rings. The total weight of such fetters, including the ankle-rings, shall not exceed 3 lbs., and the chain shall not be less than two feet in length.
- (b) Bar fetters composed of two bars joined together by a link and attached to ankle-rings. The total weight of such fetters, including the ankle-rings, shall not exceed 5 lbs., and each bar shall be not less than twenty inches in length.
- (c) Cross-bar fetters composed of a single bar for the purpose of keeping the legs apart and of ankle-rings. The total weight of such fetters, including ankle-rings, shall not exceed 2½ lbs. The length of the bar shall not exceed sixteen inches in the case of men who are not less than five feet six inches in height, or fourteen inches in the case of men below this height.

2. The maximum period for which fetters may be continuously imposed shall be,—

- (a) in the case of link fetters, twelve months;
- (b) in the case of bar fetters, six months;
- (c) in the case of cross-bar fetters, two hundred and forty hours.

A period of at least ten days must elapse after fetters of any kind have been imposed as a punishment for a prison offence before they can be again imposed as a punishment for another prison offence, whether of the same kind or not.

(8) Separate confinement for any period not exceeding six months. Separate confinement means such confinement, with or without labour, as secludes a prisoner from communication with, but not from sight of, other prisoners, and allows him not less than one hour's exercise *per diem* and to have his meals in association with one or more other prisoners.

(9) Penal diet,—that is, restriction of diet in such manner and subject to such conditions regarding labour as may be prescribed by the Local Government; provided that such restriction of diet shall in no case be applied to a prisoner for more than ninety-six consecutive hours, and shall not be repeated except for a fresh offence nor until after an interval of one week.

(10) Cellular confinement for any period not exceeding fourteen days; provided that after each period of cellular confinement an interval of not less duration than such period must elapse before the prisoner is again sentenced to cellular or solitary confinement. Cellular confinement means such confinement, with or without labour, as entirely secludes a prisoner from communication with, but not from sight of, other prisoners.

(11) Solitary confinement for any period not exceeding seven days; provided that after each period of solitary confinement an interval of not less duration than such period must elapse before the prisoner is again sentenced to solitary or cellular confinement. Solitary confinement means such confinement, with or without labour, as entirely secludes the prisoner both from sight of, and communication with, other prisoners.

(12) Penal diet combined with solitary confinement.

(13) Whipping, provided that the number of stripes shall not exceed thirty.

The Superintendent is empowered to award any of the punishments enumerated above, subject, in the case of separate confinement for a period exceeding one month, to the previous confirmation of the Inspector-General.

No officer subordinate to the Superintendent has power to award any punishment.

LABOUR PERFORMED BY CONVICTS, AND PRISON INDUSTRIES.

No prisoner in a jail in Burma may be kept at labour for more than nine hours in any one day, except on an emergency and by the written orders of the Superintendent. No work, except menial and necessary work is done on Sunday; and Christmas Day, Good Friday, and the King's Birthday are regarded as holidays.

All labour exacted from prisoners is classified as "hard," "medium," and "light" according to the amount of physical exertion required for the performance of a fixed task.

In addition to the ordinary routine work of the jail, such as cleaning and trimming lamps, chopping firewood, cooking, and so on, a number of industries are carried on in the prisons. The principal are the manufacture of articles from bamboo and cane, bookbinding, blacksmith's work, brick-making, carpentry, carpet-making, the manufacture of coir mats, cotton-weaving, jute-weaving and the manufacture of gunny-bags, printing, stone-breaking, tin work, and tailoring.

The Government of India has decided that jail labour is to be employed in supplying, firstly, jail requirements; secondly, the wants of other consuming departments of the Government. These departments are bound to obtain articles which they require from jails, provided they can be supplied of the same quality and at the same price as in the open market. In selecting industries for jails, these principles must be strictly complied with, and only in the event of it being impossible to meet the requirements of any consuming department may any industry which competes with free labour be worked in a jail.

Large industries are concentrated in central jails, where steam machinery may be employed, provided that the use of the latter is not incompatible with the penal character of convict labour, and that it does not compete injuriously with private capitalists in the neighbourhood.

Jail labour is employed to the fullest extent possible in the erection and repair of all buildings connected with jails: it is also used as far as possible in preparing materials and carrying out building operations and doing earthwork for the Public Works Department.

THE FINANCES OF THE JAIL DEPARTMENT.

The following table shows the total gross cost of guarding and maintaining the prisoners in the jails of Burma during 1904. Further details are given in Appendix K. of this volume. The figures are exclusive of the cost of new buildings, and repairs and additions, which are charged to the account of the Public Works Department.

GROSS EXPENDITURE OF JAIL DEPARTMENT, 1904

Nature of Expenditure.	Rupees.	Nature of Expenditure.	Rupees.
Permanent establishment . . .	313,787	Charges for moving prisoners .	28,126
Temporary establishment . . .	3,350	Miscellaneous charges	25,851
Dieting charges	269,184	Travelling allowances	2,338
Hospital charges	14,797	Contingencies	13,961
Clothing and bedding	25,824	Extraordinary charges	4,119
Sanitation charges	4,131		
		GRAND TOTAL GROSS EXPENDITURE	705,468

The following table shows the gross expenditure *per capita* of the average daily prisoner population of the jails of Burma in 1904:—

GROSS EXPENDITURE *PER CAPITA* OF PRISONERS, 1904.

Nature of Expenditure.	Rupees per capita.	Nature of Expenditure.	Rupees per capita.
Permanent establishment . .	26-13-0	Charges for moving prisoners .	2-6-5
Temporary establishment . .	4-7	Miscellaneous charges	2-3-4
Dieting charges	23- 2-7	Travelling allowances	3-2
Hospital charges*	1- 4-3	Contingencies	1-3-1
Clothing and bedding	2- 3-7	Extraordinary charges	5-8
Sanitation charges	5-8		
		TOTAL COST <i>per capita</i>	60-4-6

Owing to the existence of the system of jail manufactures, described on page 261, the Jail Department receives each year a considerable sum of money as a set off to its gross expenditure.

* This is worked out on the total daily average of prisoners. The cost per head of average number of sick persons was Rs. 63-8-1.

The foregoing tables disclose the internal economy of the Jail Department. The following table summarises the gross expenditure, the cash earnings of prisoners, and the gross and net expenditure *per capita*; and shows the net cost to the Government of the Jail Department, or, in other words, the extent to which the tax-payer contributes to the support of the jails:—

NET EXPENDITURE OF JAIL DEPARTMENT, 1904.

	Rupees.		Rupees.
1. Gross expenditure	705,468	6. Total of items 4 and 5	399,715
2. Cash balance on manufacturing account January 1, 1904	2,205	7. Cash earnings, being total of item 6 less items 2 and 3	222,103
3. Cash drawn on manufacturing account during 1904,	175,405	8. Net expenditure, being total of item 1 less item 7	483,364
4. Paid into the Treasury on manufacturing account during 1904	397,822	9. Gross expenditure <i>per capita</i> of average daily prison population	60-4-6
5. Cash balance in hand on manufacturing account December 31, 1904	1,893	10. Net expenditure <i>per capita</i> of average daily prison population	41-5-0

GENERAL STATISTICS OF THE JAILS, 1904.

The following tables give in a condensed form the principal facts in relation to prison administration in Burma during the year 1904. Further details are given in Appendix K.

CLASSIFICATION OF PRISONERS IN THE JAILS, 1904.

	Convicts.			Under Trial.			Civil Prisoners.			Total.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
In prison at commencement of year,	10,935	109	11,044	522	11	533	91	1	92	11,548	121	11,669
Received during the year*	18,905	599	19,504	10,278	307	10,585	962	7	969	30,145	913	31,058
Discharged during the year	18,366	577	18,943	10,314	309	10,623	976	8	984	29,656	894	30,550
Remaining at end of year	11,474	131	11,605	486	9	495	77	—	77	12,037	140	12,177
Daily average of each class	10,998	115	11,113	498	11	508	81	1	82	—	—	—
Daily average of all classes	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	11,577	126	11,703

* These figures include convicts received by transfer from one jail to another to the number of 3,113 males and 58 females. The number of *new* convicts imprisoned during 1904 was, therefore, 15,792 males and 541 females.

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

RELIGION, AGE, EDUCATION, AND PREVIOUS OCCUPATION OF CONVICTS ADMITTED TO THE JAILS DURING 1904.

Total Convicts admitted during 1904: Males, 15,792; Females, 541.*

Religion.	{	Christians	{	Male . . .	129	{	Persons employed under Government or Municipal or Local authorities.	536	
			{	Female . .	3				
		Mohammedans	{	Male . . .	744				
			{	Female . .	13				
		Hindus and Sikhs	{	Male . . .	844				
	{	Female . .	19						
Buddhists and Jains	{	Male . . .	13,388	{	Persons engaged with animals or in agriculture .	Males.	7,002		
		Female . . .	499						
All others	{	Male . . .	687	{	Persons engaged in commerce and trade	1,548			
		Female . . .	7						
Age.	{	Under 16	{	Male . . .	129	{	Persons engaged in mechanical arts, manufactures, engineering, etc. .	564	
			{	Female . .	22				
		16 to 40	{	Male . . .	13,323				
			{	Female . .	412				
		40 to 60	{	Male . . .	2,169				
Above 60	{	Male . . .	171	{	Miscellaneous persons not otherwise classed	5,391			
		Female . . .	10						
Education.	{	Able to read and write	{	Male . . .	9,776	{	Married	Females.	426
			{	Female . .	37				
		Able to read only	{	Male . . .	641				
			{	Female . .	7				
		Illiterate	{	Male . . .	5,375				
	{	Female . .	497		Unmarried	44			
					Widows	64			
					Prostitutes	7			

SENTENCES IMPOSED ON CONVICTS ADMITTED TO THE JAILS DURING 1904.

Total Convicts admitted during 1904: Males, 15,792; Females, 541.*

Not exceeding one month	{ Males . . . 3,186 Females . . . 282	Above five years and not exceeding ten years	{ Males . . . 257 Females . . . 1
Above one and not exceeding three months	{ Males . . . 2,690 Females . . . 151	Exceeding ten years	{ Males . . . 10 Females . . . —
Above three months and not exceeding six months	{ Males . . . 2,639 Females . . . 56	Transportation for life	{ Males . . . 344 Females . . . 6
Above six months and not exceeding one year	{ Males . . . 3,104 Females . . . 26	Transportation for a term	{ Males . . . 322 Females . . . 3
Above one year and not exceeding two years	{ Males . . . 2,471 Females . . . 13	Sentenced to death	{ Males . . . 21 Females . . . —
Above two years and not exceeding five years	{ Males . . . 1,000 Females . . . 5		

* These figures are for *new* convicts imprisoned during the year. See note, p. 263.

SICKNESS AND MORTALITY AMONGST THE PRISONERS OF ALL
CLASSES CONFINED IN THE JAILS DURING 1904.

Average daily strength of prisoner population	<div> <div>Males . . 11,577</div> <div>Females . . 126</div> <div>Total . . 11,703</div> </div>	Ratio admitted to hospital per mille of average strength	<div> <div>Males . . 383.78</div> <div>Females . . 658.73</div> <div>Total . . 386.74</div> </div>
Number admitted to hospital	<div> <div>Males . . 4,443</div> <div>Females . . 83</div> <div>Total . . 4,526</div> </div>	Ratio of daily average number of sick per mille of average strength	<div> <div>Males . . 19.87</div> <div>Females . . 23.81</div> <div>Total . . 19.91</div> </div>
Daily average number of sick	<div> <div>Males . . 230</div> <div>Females . . 3</div> <div>Total . . 233</div> </div>	Ratio of deaths both in and out of hospital per mille of average strength	<div> <div>Males . . 18.48</div> <div>Females . . 31.75</div> <div>Total . . 18.63</div> </div>
Number of deaths in and out of hospital	<div> <div>Males . . 214</div> <div>Females . . 4</div> <div>Total . . 218</div> </div>		

THE MARK SYSTEM.

Except in the case of convicts sentenced for thuggi, or dacoity, or the administration of poisonous drugs for purposes of robbery, or persons convicted of heinous organised crime, or professional, hereditary, or specially dangerous criminals, for whom special rules are in force, prisoners in the jails of Burma may earn absolute remission of their sentences under the mark system.

Ordinary marks are awarded at the rate of one a day for each of the following points:—(1) thoroughly good conduct, (2) industry, (3) special diligence in work; and special marks up to the number of 100 for any one service or in one quarter for (1) assisting in detecting or preventing breaches of prison discipline, (2) success in teaching a handicraft, (3) special excellence of work, (4) protection of a prison officer from attack, (5) assisting an officer in a case of outbreak of fire, etc., and (6) economy in the wearing of clothing.

All prisoners, with the exceptions noted above, are entitled to a remission of one day of sentence for every twenty-four marks earned. In 1904 the number of prisoners released whose sentences were reduced under the mark system was 4,516. The number released on the expiry of sentence, without any remission under the mark system, was 9,635.

CHAPTER X.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN BURMA

REFERENCES.

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- Strachey, Sir John. India: Its Administration and Progress. London, Macmillan, 1903. Consult Chapter XVI., "Education in India."
- Nisbet, John. Burma under British Rule—and Before. Westminster, Constable, 1901. Consult Vol. I., pp. 251-259.
- First Quinquennial Report on Public Instruction in Burma, for the Years 1892-93-1896-97. Rangoon, Govt. Press, 1897. Folio, pp. iv + 10 + 77 + xv. *Maps*.
- Second Quinquennial Report on Public Instruction in Burma, for the Years 1897-98-1901-02. Rangoon, Govt. Press, 1902. Folio, pp. iii + 4 + 70. *Maps*.
- Resolution of the Government of India in the Home Department on "Indian Educational Policy." Dated Calcutta, 11th March 1904. Published in *The Burma Gazette*, April 9, 1904, Part II., pp. 202-217.

Public Instruction in Burma is administered in conformity with the general educational policy of the Government of India; and the higher officials in the Educational Departments of the various Provinces belong to the Indian Educational Service, and are recruited in England by the Government of India.

The question of Public Instruction in India has engaged the attention of the Government to an extraordinary degree during the past half-century, and in 1904 a most interesting and important Resolution on the subject of Indian Educational Policy was issued by the Government of India in the Home Department.

This Resolution (the greater part of which is reproduced in the following pages) affords a clear and succinct view of the policy of the Government of India in regard to all the more important questions which arise in relation to the system of Public Instruction in India. Although there are some minor points in which the practice in Burma differs from the policy outlined in the Resolution, such differences are few in number and unimportant in character.

EDUCATIONAL POLICY OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

Abstract of a Resolution of the Government of India in the Home Department, dated Calcutta, 11th March 1904, on the Subject of Indian Educational Policy.

Education in India, in the modern sense of the word, may be said to date from the year 1854, when the Court of Directors, in a memorable despatch, definitely accepted the systematic promotion of general education as one of the duties of the State, and emphatically declared that the type of education which they desired to see extended in India was that which had for its object the diffusion of the arts, science, and philosophy, and literature of Europe; in short, of European knowledge.

The acceptance of this duty was an important departure in policy. The advent of British rule found in India systems of education of great antiquity existing among both Hindus and Muhammadans, in each case closely bound up with their religious institutions. To give and to receive instruction was enjoined by the sacred books of the Brahmans, and one of the commentaries on the Rig Veda lays down in minute detail the routine to be followed in committing a text-book to memory. Schools of learning were formed in centres containing considerable high caste populations, where Pandits gave instruction in Sanskrit grammar, logic, philosophy, and law. For the lower classes, village schools were scattered over the country in which a rudimentary education was given to the children of traders, petty landholders, and well-to-do cultivators. The higher education of Muhammadans was in the hands of men of learning, who devoted themselves to the instruction of youth. Schools were attached to mosques and shrines and supported by State grants in cash or land, or by private liberality. The course of study in a Muhammadan place of learning included grammar, rhetoric, logic, literature, jurisprudence, and science. Both systems, the Muhammadan no less than the Hindu, assigned a disproportionate importance to the training of the memory, and sought to develop the critical faculties of the mind, mainly by exercising their pupils in metaphysical refinements and in fine-spun commentaries on the meaning of the texts which they had learnt by heart.

The first instinct of British rulers was to leave the traditional modes of instruction undisturbed and to continue the support which they had been accustomed to receive from Indian rulers. The Calcutta Madrasa for Muhammadans was founded by Warren Hastings in 1782, and the Benares College for Hindus was established in 1791. Provision was made for giving regular assistance to education from public funds by a clause in the Charter Act of 1813, which empowered the Governor-General in Council to direct that one lakh of rupees in each year should be "set apart and applied to the revival and improvement of literature and the encouragement of the learned natives of India and for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories in India."

This grant was at first applied to the encouragement of Oriental methods of instruction by paying stipends to students. But the presence of the British in India brought about profound changes in the social and administrative conditions of the country; and these in their turn reacted on the educational policy of Government. The impulse towards reform came from two sources, the need for public servants with a knowledge of the English language, and the influence in favour both of English and of Vernacular education which was exercised by the missionaries in the early years of the nineteenth century. The well-known Minute written by Lord Macaulay (at that time Legal Member of Council and Chairman of the Committee of Public Instruction) in 1835 marks the point at which official recognition was given to the necessity of public support for western education. Then followed a period of attempts differing in different provinces to extend English education by the establishment of Government schools and colleges, and by strengthening the indigenous schools; while missionary effort continued to play an important part in promoting educational progress.

In their Despatch of 1854, the Court of Directors announced their decision that the Government should actively assist in the more extended and

Despatch of 1854. systematic promotion of general education in India. They regarded it as a sacred duty to confer upon the natives of India those vast moral and material blessings which flow from the general diffusion of useful knowledge. They hoped by means of education to extend the influence which the Government was exerting for the suppression of demoralising practices, by enlisting in its favour the general sympathy of the native mind. They also sought to create a supply of public servants to whose probity offices of trust might with increased confidence be committed, and to promote the material interests of the country by stimulating its inhabitants to develop its vast resources. The measures which were prescribed for carrying out this policy were: (1) the constitution of a department of public instruction; (2) the foundation of universities at the Presidency towns; (3) the establishment of training schools for teachers; (4) the maintenance of the existing Government colleges and schools of a high order, and the increase of their number when necessary; (5) increased attention to all forms of vernacular schools; and finally (6) the introduction of a system of grants-in-aid which should foster a spirit of reliance upon local exertions, and should in course of time render it possible to close or transfer to the management of local bodies many of the existing institutions.

The policy laid down in 1854 was re-affirmed in 1859 when the administration had been transferred to the Crown. The Universities of Calcutta, Madras,

and Bombay were incorporated in 1857 and those of the Punjab and Allahabad in 1882 and 1887, respectively. The growth of schools and colleges proceeded most rapidly between 1871 and 1882, and was further augmented by the development of the municipal system, and by the Acts which were passed from 1865 onwards providing for the imposition of local cesses which might be applied to the establishment of schools. By the year 1882 there were more than two million and a quarter of pupils under instruction in public institutions. The Commission of 1882-83 furnished a most

copious and valuable report upon the state of education as then existing, made a careful inquiry into the measures which had been taken in pursuance of the Despatch of 1854, and submitted further detailed proposals for carrying out the principles of that despatch. They advised increased reliance upon, and systematic encouragement of, private effort; and their recommendations were approved by the Government of India. Shortly afterwards a considerable devolution of the management of Government schools upon municipalities and district boards was effected in accordance with the principles of local self-government then brought into operation.

As a result of these continuous efforts we find in existence to-day a system of public instruction, the influence of which extends in varying degrees to every part of India, and is upon the whole powerful for good. The system includes five Universities, those of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, the Punjab, and Allahabad, which prescribe courses of study and examine the students of affiliated colleges. These colleges are widely scattered throughout the country and number in all 191 exclusive of some colleges outside British India (which are not incorporated in the Provincial statistics), with 23,009 students on the rolls. In them provision is made for studies in Arts and Oriental learning, and for professional courses of Law, Medicine, Engineering, Teaching, and Agriculture. Below the colleges are secondary schools, to the number of 5,493, with an attendance of 558,378 scholars, and primary schools numbering 98,538, with 3,268,726 pupils. Including special schools, technical and industrial schools of art, and normal schools for teachers, the total number of colleges and schools for public instruction amounts to 105,306, with 3,887,493 pupils; and if to these are added the "private institutions" which do not conform with departmental standards, the total number of scholars known by the Education Department to be under instruction reaches about $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions. The gross annual cost of maintaining these institutions exceeds 400 lakhs, of which 127 lakhs are derived from fees, and 83 lakhs from endowments, subscriptions, and other private sources; while the expenditure from public funds aggregates 191 lakhs, of which 104 lakhs are derived from Provincial and Imperial revenues, 74 lakhs from Local and Municipal sources, and 13 lakhs from the revenues of Native States. It is a striking feature of the system, and one which must constantly be borne in mind when dwelling upon its imperfections, that its total cost to the public funds, provincial and local together, falls short of £1,300,000 annually. The wider extension of education in India is chiefly a matter of increased expenditure; and any material improvement of its quality is largely dependent upon the same condition.

It is almost universally admitted that substantial benefits have been conferred upon the people themselves by the advance which has been made in Indian education within the last fifty years;

Merits and Defects of the Present System of Education.

that knowledge has been spread abroad to an extent formerly undreamed of; that new avenues of employment have been opened in many directions; and that there has been a marked improvement in the character of the public servants now chosen from the ranks of educated

natives, as compared with those of the days before schools and universities had commenced to exercise their elevating influence. But it is also impossible to ignore the fact that criticisms from many quarters are directed at some of the features and results of the system as it exists at present, and that these criticisms proceed especially from friends and well-wishers of the cause of education. Its shortcomings in point of quantity need no demonstration. Four villages out of five are without a school; three boys out of four grow up without education, and only one girl in forty attends any kind of school. In point of quality the main charges brought against the system are to the general effect (1) that the higher education is pursued with too exclusive a view to entering Government service, that its scope is thus unduly narrowed, and that those who fail to obtain employment under Government are ill fitted for other pursuits; (2) that excessive prominence is given to examinations; (3) that the courses of study are too purely literary in character; (4) that the schools and colleges train the intelligence of the students too little, and their memory too much, so that mechanical repetition takes the place of sound learning; (5) that in the pursuit of English education the cultivation of the vernaculars is neglected, with the result that the hope expressed in the Despatch of 1854 that they would become the vehicle for diffusing western knowledge among the masses is as far as ever from realisation.

The Governor-General in Council having closely considered the subject, and having come to the conclusion that the existing methods of instruction stand in need of substantial reform, has consulted the Local Governments and Administrations upon the measures necessary to this end, and believes that he has their hearty concurrence in the general lines of the policy which he desires to prescribe. He therefore invites all who are interested in raising the general level of education in India, and in spreading its benefits more widely, to co-operate in giving effect to the principles laid down in the Resolution. With this object in view, an attempt is made in the following paragraphs to review the whole subject in its various aspects, to point out the defects that require correction in each of its branches, and to indicate the remedies which in the opinion of the Government of India ought now to be applied.

A variety of causes, some historical, some social, have combined to bring about the result that in India, far more than in England, the majority of

Education and the Government Service. students who frequent the higher schools and the universities are there for the purpose of qualifying themselves to earn an independent livelihood; that Government service is regarded by the educated classes as the most assured, the most dignified, and the most attractive of all careers; and the desire on the part of most students to realise these manifold advantages as soon and as cheaply as possible tends to prevent both schools and colleges from filling their proper position as places of liberal education. On these grounds it has often been urged that the higher interests of education in India are injuriously affected by the prevailing system of basing selection for Government service on the school and university attainments of those who come forward as candidates for employment. Some indeed have gone so far as to suggest that educational standards would be indefinitely raised if it were possible to break off these material relations with the State, and to in-

stitute separate examinations for the public service under the control of a special board organised on the model of the English Civil Service Commission.

The Government of India cannot accept this opinion. It appears to them that such examinations, if established admittedly as a substitute for, and not merely as supplementary to, the University course, would necessarily be held in subjects differing from those prescribed by the University; and that two distinct courses of study would thus exist side by side, only one of them leading to Government service. If students attempted to compete in both lines, the strain of excessive examination, already the subject of complaint, would be greatly intensified; while, on the other hand, if the bulk of them were attracted by the prospect of obtaining Government appointments, the result would be the sacrifice of such intellectual improvement as is achieved under the existing system. Success in the Government examination would become the sole standard of culture, the influence of the Universities would decline, the value of their degrees would be depreciated, and the main stream of educational effort would be diverted into a narrow and sordid channel. Such a degradation of the educational ideals of the country could hardly fail to react upon the character of the public service itself. The improved tone of the native officials of the present day dates from, and is reasonably attributed to, the more extended employment of men who have received a liberal education in the Universities, and have imbibed through the influence of their teachers some of the traditions of English public life. Nor is there any reason to believe that by introducing its own examinations the Government would raise the standard of fitness, or secure better men for the public service than it obtains under the present system. There is a general consensus of opinion among all the authorities consulted that no examining board would do better than the Universities. If a separate examination did no more than confirm the finding of the Universities, it would be obviously superfluous; if it conflicted with that finding, it would be mischievous.

The Government is in the last resort the sole judge as to the best method of securing the type of officers which it requires for its service. It alone possesses the requisite knowledge and experience, and by these tests must its decision be guided. The principle of competition for Government appointments was unknown in India until a few years ago; it does not spring from the traditions of the people, and it is without the safeguards by which its operation is controlled in England. It sets aside, moreover, considerations which cannot be disregarded by a Government whose duty it is to reconcile the conflicting claims of diverse races, rival religions, and varying degrees of intellectual and administrative aptitude and adaptability. For the higher grades of Government service there is no need to have recourse to the system since it is possible in most cases for the Government to accept the various University degrees and distinctions as indicating that their holders possess the amount of knowledge requisite to enable them to fill particular appointments; while in the case of the more technical departments, a scrutiny of the subjects taken up by the candidate, and of the degree of success attained in each, will sufficiently indicate how far he possesses the particular knowledge and bent of mind that his duties will demand. The Government of India are of opinion, therefore, that special competitions should,

as a general rule, be dispensed with; and that the requisite acquaintance with the laws, rules, and regulations of departments may best be attained during probationary service, and tested after a period of such service. In short, the Government of India hold that the multiplication of competitive tests for Government service neither results in advantage to Government nor is consistent with the highest interests of a liberal education. In fixing the educational standards which qualify for appointments, the natural divisions of primary, secondary, and University education should be followed; school and college certificates of proficiency should, so far as possible, be accepted as full evidence of educational qualifications, regard being paid, within the limits of each standard, to their comparative value; and due weight should be attached to the recorded opinions of collegiate and school authorities regarding the proficiency and conduct of candidates during their period of tuition.

Examinations, as now understood, are believed to have been unknown as an instrument of general education in ancient India, nor do they figure prominently in the Despatch of 1854. In recent years they have grown to extravagant dimensions, and their influence has been allowed to dominate the whole system

The Abuse of Examinations. of education in India, with the result that instruction is confined within the rigid framework of prescribed courses, that all forms of training which do not admit of being tested by written examinations are liable to be neglected, and that both teachers and pupils are tempted to concentrate their energies not so much upon genuine study as upon the questions likely to be set by the examiners. These demoralising tendencies have been encouraged by the practice of assessing grants to aided schools upon the results shown by examination. This system, adopted in the first instance on the strength of English precedents, has now been finally condemned in England, while experience in India has proved that, to whatever grade of schools it is applied, it is disastrous in its influence on education and uncertain in its financial effects. It will now be replaced by more equitable tests of efficiency, depending on the number of scholars in attendance, the buildings provided for their accommodation, the circumstances of the locality, the qualifications of the teachers, the nature of the instruction given, and the outlay from other sources, such as fees and private endowments or subscriptions. The Educational Codes of the various Provinces are being revised so as to embody these important reforms, and to relieve the schools and scholars from the heavy burden of recurring mechanical tests. In future there will be only two examinations preceding the University course. The first of these, the primary examination, will mark the completion of the lowest stage of instruction, and will test the degree of proficiency attained in the highest classes of primary schools. But it will no longer be a public examination held at centres to which a number of schools are summoned; it will be conducted by the inspecting officer in the school itself. The second examination will take place at the close of the secondary, usually an Anglo-Vernacular course, and will record the educational attainments of all boys who have completed this course. In both stages of instruction special provision will be made for the award of scholarships.

In giving effect to this change of system, it will be necessary to guard against the danger that the subordinate inspecting agency may misuse the increased discretion intrusted to them. The principles upon which the grant to an aided school is to be assessed must therefore be laid down by each Local Government in terms sufficiently clear to guide the inspecting officer in his recommendations; precautions must be taken against the abuse of authority, or the perfunctory performance of the duties of inspection; and in those Provinces where the application of standards of efficiency other than those afforded by written examinations is a novelty, it will be incumbent upon the Education Department, by conferences of inspecting officers and by other means, to secure a reasonable degree of uniformity in the standards imposed. The Governor-General in Council does not doubt that that discipline and ability of the educational services will prove equal to maintaining, under the altered conditions, a system of independent and efficient inspection.

From the earliest days of British rule in India private enterprise has played a great part in the promotion of both English and Vernacular education, and every agency that could be induced to help in the work of imparting sound

Government Control and Private Enterprise. instruction has always been welcomed by the State. The system of grants-in-aid was intended to elicit support from local resources, and to foster a spirit of initiative and combination for local ends. It is supplemented by the direct action of Government, which, speaking generally, sets the standard, and undertakes work to which private effort is not equal, or for which it is not forthcoming. Thus the educational machinery now at work in India comprises, not only institutions managed by Government, by district and municipal boards, and by Native States, but also institutions under private management, whether aided by Government or by local authorities, or unaided. All of these which comply with certain conditions are classed as public institutions. They number, as already stated, 105,306 in all and over 82,500 are under private management.

The progressive devolution of primary, secondary, and collegiate education upon private enterprise, and the continuous withdrawal of Government from competition therewith was recommended by the Education Commission in 1883, and the advice has been generally acted upon. But while accepting this policy, the Government of India at the same time recognise the extreme importance of the principle that in each branch of education Government should maintain a limited number of institutions, both as models for private enterprise to follow and in order to uphold a high standard of education. In withdrawing from direct management, it is further essential that Government should retain a general control, by means of efficient inspection, over all public educational institutions.

Primary education is the instruction of the masses, through the vernacular, in such subjects as will best stimulate their intelligence and fit them for their

Primary Education. position in life. It was found in 1854 that the consideration of measures to this end had been too much neglected and a considerable increase of expenditure on primary education was then contemplated. The Education Commission recom-

mended in 1883 that "the elementary education of the masses, its provision, extension, and improvement should be that part of the educational system to which the strenuous efforts of the State should be directed in a still larger measure than before." The Government of India fully accept the proposition that the active extension of primary education is one of the most important duties of the State. They undertake this responsibility, not merely on general grounds, but because, as Lord Lawrence observed in 1868, "among all the sources of difficulty in our administration, and of possible danger to the stability of our Government there are few so serious as the ignorance of the people." To the people themselves, moreover, the lack of education is now a more serious disadvantage than it was in more primitive days. By the extension of railways the economic side of agriculture in India has been greatly developed, and the cultivator has been brought into contact with the commercial world, and has been involved in transactions in which an illiterate man is at a great disadvantage. The material benefits attaching to education have at the same time increased with the development of schemes for introducing improved agricultural methods, for opening agricultural banks, for strengthening the legal position of the cultivator, and for generally improving the conditions of rural life. Such schemes depend largely for their success upon the influence of education permeating the masses and rendering them accessible to ideas other than those sanctioned by tradition.

How, then, do matters stand in respect of the extension among the masses of primary education. The population of British India is over two hundred and forty millions. It is commonly reckoned

Extent of

Primary Education.

that fifteen per cent. of the population are of school-going age. According to this standard there are more than eighteen millions of boys who ought now to be at school, but of these only a little more than one-sixth are actually receiving primary education. If the statistics are arranged by Provinces, it appears that out of a hundred boys of an age to go to school, the number attending primary schools of some kind ranges from between eight and nine in the Punjab and the United Provinces to twenty-two and twenty-three in Bombay and Bengal. In the census of 1901 it was found that only one in ten of the male population, and only seven in a thousand of the female population were literate. These figures exhibit the vast dimensions of the problem, and show how much remains to be done before the proportion of the population receiving elementary instruction can approach the standard recognised as indispensable in more advanced countries.

While the need for education grows with the growth of population, the progress towards supplying it is not now so rapid as it was in former years.

Progress of

Primary Education.

In 1870-71 there were 16,473 schools with 607,320 scholars; in 1881-82 there were 82,916 with 2,061,541 scholars. But by 1891-92 these had only increased to 97,109 schools with 2,837,607 scholars, and the figures of 1901-02 (98,538 schools with 3,268,726 scholars) suggest that the initial force of expansion is somewhat on the decline; indeed the last year of the century showed a slight decrease as compared with the previous year. For purposes

of exact comparison some allowances have to be made for differences in the basis of the statistics, but their broad effect is not altered by these modifications. Nor has the rate of growth of primary schools kept pace with that of secondary schools, in which the number of scholars has considerably more than doubled during the last twenty years. It may be said indeed that the expansion of primary schools has received a check in recent years from the calamities of famine and plague; and it is further impeded by the indifference of the more advanced and ambitious classes to the spread of primary education. These however are minor obstacles, which would soon be swept away if the main difficulty of finding the requisite funds for extending primary education could be overcome.

The expenditure upon primary education does not admit of exact statement, since the cost of the instruction given in the lower classes of secondary schools is not separately shown, nor is the expenditure on the administration and inspection of primary schools capable of separate calculation. But the direct outlay from public funds upon primary schools stands as follows:—

Origin of Outlay.	1886-87.	1891-92.	1901-02.
	<i>Rs.</i>	<i>Rs.</i>	<i>Rs.</i>
From Provincial funds	1,600,239	1,343,343	1,692,514
From Local and Municipal funds .	2,607,624	3,586,208	4,610,387
Total	4,207,863	4,929,551	6,302,901

On a general view of the question the Government of India cannot avoid the conclusion that primary education has hitherto received insufficient attention and an inadequate share of the public funds.

Claims of Primary Education. They consider that it possesses a strong claim upon the sympathy both of the Supreme Government and of the Local Governments, and should be made a leading charge upon Provincial revenues; and that in those Provinces where it is in a backward condition, its encouragement should be a primary obligation. The Government of India believe that Local Governments are cordially in agreement with them in desiring this extension, and will carry it out to the limits allowed by the financial conditions of each Province.

In so far as District or Municipal Boards are required to devote their funds to education, primary education should have a predominant claim upon their expenditure. The administration of primary schools by local bodies is already everywhere subject to the general supervision of the Education Department as regards

Functions of Local Authorities in regard to Primary Education. tuitional matters; but the degree of control differs in different Provinces, and where it is most complete, primary education is most advanced. It is impossible to extend that control to financial matters, as there are other

objects besides education which have legitimate claims upon local funds. But it is essential, in order to insure that the claims of primary education receive due attention, that the educational authorities should be heard when resources are being allotted, and that they should have the opportunity of carrying their representations to higher authority in the event of their being disregarded. In future, therefore, so much of the budget estimates of District or Municipal Boards as relates to educational charges will be submitted through the Inspector to the Director of Public Instruction before sanction.

The course of instruction in primary schools naturally consists mainly of reading and writing (in the vernacular) and arithmetic. Progress has been made in several parts of India during recent years in the introduction of Kindergarten methods and object lessons. Where these methods have been applied with discretion by competent teachers, who have discarded elaborate forms and foreign appliances, and have used for the purpose of instruction objects familiar to the children in their every-day life, they have been productive of much benefit by imparting greater life and reality to the teaching and by training the children's faculties and powers of observation. The Government of India look with favour upon the extension of such teaching, where competent teachers are available, as calculated to correct some of the inherent defects of the Indian intellect, to discourage exclusive reliance on the memory, and to develop a capacity for reasoning from observed facts. Physical exercises also find a place in the primary schools, and should as far as possible be made universal.

The instruction of the masses in such subjects as will best fit them for their position in life involves some differentiation in the courses for rural schools, especially in connection with the attempts which are being made to connect primary teaching with familiar objects. The aim of the rural schools should be, not to impart definite agricultural teaching, but to give to the children a preliminary training which will make them intelligent cultivators, will train them to be observers, thinkers, and experimenters in however humble a manner, and will protect them in their business transactions with the landlords to whom they pay rent and the grain dealers to whom they dispose of their crops. The reading books prescribed should be written in simple language, not in unfamiliar literary style, and should deal with topics associated with rural life. The grammar taught should be elementary, and only native systems of arithmetic should be used. The village map should be thoroughly understood; and a most useful course of instruction may be given in the accountant's papers, enabling every boy before leaving school to master the intricacies of the village accounts and to understand the demands that may be made upon the cultivator. The Government of India regard it as a matter of the greatest importance to provide a simple, suitable, and useful type of school for the agriculturist, and to foster the demand for it among the population.

Steps are being taken to supply courses of training specially suited for teachers of rural schools. These do not attempt the impossible task of

reforming the agricultural practice of the peasantry by the agency of village schoolmasters imbued with a smattering of scientific theory. They serve the more limited and practical purpose of supplying the village schools with teachers whose stock-in-trade is not mere book learning, and whose interests have been aroused in the study of rural things, so that they may be able to connect their teaching with the objects which are familiar to the children in the country schools. Various plans are being tried, such as drafting the teachers from the normal school to a Government farm and training them there for six months, or giving a continuous course at the normal school itself by means of lectures combined with practice in cultivating plots of ground or school gardens. Experience will show which methods work best in different Provinces, and it is not necessary to pronounce in favour of one plan to the exclusion of others.

The growth of secondary instruction is one of the most striking features in the history of education in India. The number of secondary schools

Secondary Education. has risen in the last twenty years from 3,916 to 5,493 and that of their pupils from 214,077 to 558,378. In all Provinces there is considerable eagerness among parents to afford their sons an English education, and the provision and maintenance of a high school are common objects of liberality among all sections of the community. Whether these schools are managed by public authority or by private persons, and whether they receive aid from public funds or not, the Government is bound in the interest of the community to see that the education provided in them is sound. It must, for example, satisfy itself in each case that a secondary school is actually wanted; that its financial stability is assured; that its managing body, where there is one, is properly constituted; that it teaches the proper subjects up to a proper standard; that due provision has been made for the instruction, health, recreation, and discipline of the pupils; that the teachers are suitable as regards character, number, and qualifications; and that the fees to be paid will not involve such competition with any existing school as will be unfair and injurious to the interests of education. Such are the conditions upon which alone schools should be eligible to receive grants-in-aid or to send up pupils to compete for or receive pupils in enjoyment of Government scholarships; and schools complying with them will be ranked as "recognised" schools. But this is not sufficient. It is further essential that no institution which fails to conform to the elementary principles of sound education should be permitted to present pupils for the University examinations; and in future admission to the Universities should be restricted to *bona fide* private candidates and to candidates from recognised schools. In this way the schools which enjoy the valuable privilege of recognition will in return give guarantees of efficiency in its wider sense; and the public will be assisted in their choice of schools for their children by knowing that a school which is "recognised" is one which complies with certain definite conditions.

It is frequently urged that the courses of study in secondary schools are too literary in their character. The same complaint is otherwise expressed by saying that the high school courses are almost exclusively preparatory to the University Entrance Examination, and take insufficient account of

the fact that most of the scholars do not proceed to the University, and require some different course of instruction. Attempts have therefore been made, in pursuance of the recommendations of the Education Commission, to introduce alternative courses, analogous to what is known in England as a "modern side," in order to meet the needs of those boys who are destined for industrial or commercial pursuits. These attempts have not hitherto met with success. The purely literary course, qualifying as it does both for the University and for Government employ, continues to attract the great majority of pupils, and more practical studies are at present but little in request. The Government of India, however, will not abandon their aim. In the present stage of social and industrial development it appears to them essential to promote diversified types of secondary education, corresponding with the varying needs of practical life. Their efforts in this direction will be seconded by that large body of influential opinion which has supported the recommendation of the Universities Commission that the Entrance Examination should no longer be accepted as a qualifying test for Government service.

But the question what subjects should be taught and by what means proficiency in them should be tested forms only a part of the larger problem of the true object of secondary education. What-
Examinations in ever courses a school may adopt it should aim
Secondary Schools. at teaching them well and intelligently, and at producing pupils who have fully assimilated the knowledge which they have acquired, and are capable of more sustained effort than is involved in merely passing an examination. Some test of course there must be; and the Government of India are disposed to think that the best solution of the difficulty will probably be found in adapting to Indian conditions the system of leaving examinations, held at the conclusion of the secondary course, which has been tried with success in other countries. Such examinations would not dominate the courses of study, but would be adapted to them, and would form the natural culminating point of secondary education; a point not to be reached by sudden and spasmodic effort, but by the orderly development of all the faculties of the mind under good and trained teaching. They would be of a more searching character than the present Entrance test, and the certificate given at their close would be evidence that the holder had received a sound education in a recognised school, that he had borne a good character, and that he had really learnt what the school professed to have taught him. It would thus possess a definite value, and would deserve recognition not only by Government and the Universities, but also by the large body of private employers who are in want of well-trained assistants in their various lines of activity.

The remark has often been made that the extension in India of an education modelled upon European principles, and, so far as Government insti-

Ethics of Education. tutions are concerned, purely secular in its character, has stimulated tendencies unfavourable to discipline, and has encouraged the growth of a spirit of irreverence in the rising generation. If any schools or colleges produce this result, they fail to realise the object with which they are established—of promoting the

moral no less than the intellectual and physical well-being of their students. It is the settled policy of Government to abstain from interfering with the religious instruction given in aided schools. Many of these, maintained by native managers or by missionary bodies in various parts of the Empire, supply religious and ethical instruction to complete the educational training of their scholars. In Government institutions the instruction is, and must continue to be, exclusively secular. In such cases the remedy for the evil tendencies noticed above is to be sought, not so much in any formal methods of teaching conduct by means of moral text-books or primers of personal ethics as in the influence of carefully selected and trained teachers, the maintenance of a high standard of discipline, the institution of well-managed hostels, the proper selection of text-books, such as biographies which teach by example, and above all in the association of teachers and pupils in the common interests of their daily life. Experience has further shown that discipline and conduct are sure to decline when the competition between schools is carried so far as to allow scholars to migrate from one school to another without inquiry being made as to their conduct at their previous school and their reasons for leaving it. Rules have accordingly been framed regulating the admission of scholars to Government and aided schools and their promotion on transfer from one school to another so as to secure that a record of their conduct shall be maintained and that irregularities and breaches of discipline shall not pass unnoticed. These rules will now be extended to all unaided schools which desire to enjoy the benefits of recognition.

Except in certain of the larger towns of Madras, where like Urdu in Northern India, it serves to some extent the purpose of a *lingua franca*, English has no place, and should have no place, in the scheme of primary education. It has never been part of the policy of Government to substitute the English language for the vernacular dialects

**The Question of
Languages to be
used in the Schools.**

of the country. It is true that the commercial value which a knowledge of English commands, and the fact that the final examinations of the high schools are conducted in English, cause the secondary schools to be subjected to a certain pressure to introduce prematurely both the teaching of English as a language and its use as the medium of instruction; while for the same reasons the study of the vernacular in these schools is liable to be thrust into the background. This tendency however requires to be corrected in the interest of sound education. As a general rule a child should not be allowed to learn English as a language until he has made some progress in the primary stages of instruction and has received a thorough grounding in his mother tongue. It is equally important that when the teaching of English has begun, it should not be prematurely employed as the medium of instruction in other subjects. Much of the practice, too prevalent in Indian schools, of committing to memory ill-understood phrases and extracts from text-books or notes, may be traced to the scholars having received instruction through the medium of English before their knowledge of the language was sufficient to enable them to understand what they were taught. The line of division between the use of the vernacular and of English as a medium of

instruction should, broadly speaking, be drawn at a minimum age of 13. No scholar in a secondary school should, even then, be allowed to abandon the study of his vernacular, which should be kept up until the end of the school course. If the educated classes neglect the cultivation of their own languages, these will assuredly sink to the level of mere colloquial dialects possessing no literature worthy of the name, and no progress will be possible in giving effect to the principle that European knowledge should gradually be brought, by means of the Indian vernaculars, within the reach of all classes of the people.

In their efforts to promote female education the Government have always encountered peculiar difficulties arising from the social customs of the people;

Female Education. but they have acted on the view that through female education a "far greater proportional impulse is imparted to the educational and moral tone of the people than by the education of men," and have accordingly treated this branch of education liberally in respect of scholarships and fees. Nevertheless, though some advance has been made, female education as a whole is still in a very backward condition. The number of female scholars in public schools in the year 1901-02 was 444,470, or less than a ninth of the number of male scholars. The percentage of girls in public schools to the total female population of school-going age has risen from 1.58 in the year 1886-87 to 2.49 in 1901-02. This rate of progress is slow. The Education Commission made recommendations for the extension of female education, and the Government of India hope that with the increase of the funds assigned in aid of education their proposals may be more fully carried out. The measures which are now being taken for further advance include the establishment in important centres of model primary girls' schools, an increase in the number of training schools, with more liberal assistance to those already in existence, and a strengthening of the staff of inspectresses. The direct action of Government will be exerted in cases where that of the municipalities and local boards does not suffice. Nearly one-half of the girls in public schools are in mixed boys'-girls' schools. Their attendance along with boys is often beneficial to them, especially in village schools, and nothing in the report of the Commission of 1882 need be taken as indicating that such attendance ought to be discouraged. Great assistance is rendered to the cause of female education generally by missionary effort, and in the higher grades especially by *zenana* teaching. The Government of India desire that such teaching shall be encouraged by grants-in-aid.

In founding the Universities of Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras, the Government of India of that day took as their model the type of institution then

University Education. believed to be best suited to the educational conditions of India, that is to say, the examining University of London. Since then the best educational thought of Europe has shown an increasing tendency to realise the inevitable shortcomings of a purely examining University, and the London University itself has taken steps to enlarge the scope of its operations by assuming tuitional functions. The model, in fact, has parted with its most characteristic features, and has set an example of expansion which cannot fail to react upon the correspond-

ing institutions in India. Meanwhile the Indian experience of the last fifty years has proved that a system which provides merely for examining students in those subjects to which their aptitudes direct them, and does not at the same time compel them to study those subjects systematically under first-rate instruction, tends inevitably to accentuate certain characteristic defects of the Indian intellect—the development of the memory out of all proportion to the other faculties of the mind, the incapacity to observe and appreciate facts, and the taste for metaphysical and technical distinctions. Holding it to be the duty of a Government which has made itself responsible for education in India to do everything in its power to correct these shortcomings, the Governor-General in Council two years ago appointed a Commission, with the Honourable Mr. T. Raleigh as President, to report upon the constitution and working of the Universities, and to recommend measures for elevating the standard of University teaching and promoting the advancement of learning. After full consideration of the report of this Commission, and of the criticisms which it called forth, the Government of India have come to the conclusion that certain reforms in the constitution and management of the Universities are necessary. They propose that the Senates, which from various causes have grown to an unwieldy size, should be reconstituted on a working basis, and that the position and powers of the syndicates should be defined and regulated. Opportunity will be taken to give statutory recognition to the privilege of electing members of the Senate which, since 1891, has been conceded by way of experiment to the graduates of the three older Universities. A limit will be placed upon the number of *ex-officio* fellows; and a reduction will be made in the maximum numbers of the Senates so as to restrict nominations to those bodies to the persons well qualified to discharge their responsible duties. Powers will be conferred upon all the Universities to make suitable provision for University teaching. The teaching given in colleges will, instead of being tested mainly or wholly by external examinations, be liable to systematic inspection under the authority of the Syndicate; and the duty of the University not only to demand a high educational standard from any new college that desires to be recommended to Government for affiliation, but also gradually to enforce a similar standard in colleges already affiliated, will be carefully defined. A college applying for affiliation will be required to satisfy the University and the Government that it is under the management of a regularly constituted governing body; that its teaching staff is adequate for the courses of instruction undertaken; that the buildings and equipment are suitable, and that due provision is made for the residence and supervision of the students; that, so far as circumstances permit, due provision is made for the residence of some of the teaching staff; that the financial resources of the college are sufficient; that its affiliation, having regard to the provision for students made by neighbouring colleges, will not be injurious to the interests of education or discipline; and that the fees to be paid by the students will not involve competition injurious to the interests of education with any existing college in the same neighbourhood. Colleges already affiliated will be inspected regularly and will be required to show that they continue to comply with the conditions on which the privilege of affiliation is granted. The

necessary improvements in the Universities and their affiliated colleges cannot be carried out without financial aid. This the Government of India are prepared to give; and they trust that it will be possible to afford liberal recognition and assistance to genuine effort on the part of the colleges to adapt themselves to the new conditions. They also hope that this increase of expenditure from the public funds may be accompanied by an increase in the aid given to colleges and Universities by private liberality, so that the policy of progressive development which was adopted in 1854 may be consistently followed, and that the influence of the improved Universities may be felt throughout the educational system of the country.

The problem of the education of European and Eurasian children in India has been anxiously considered by the Government of India on many occasions. As long ago as 1860 Lord Canning

Education of Europeans and Eurasians in India. wrote that, if measures for educating this class were not promptly and vigorously

taken in hand, it would grow into a profitless and unmanageable community, a source of danger rather than of strength to the State. Since then repeated efforts have been made both by the Government and by private agency to place the question on a satisfactory basis by establishing schools of various grades, both in the plains and in the hills, by giving liberal grants-in-aid, and by framing a code of regulations applicable to all forms of instruction that the circumstances require. As a result of this action there are now more than 400 schools and colleges for Europeans in India, with nearly 30,000 scholars, costing annually $42\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs, of which $8\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs are contributed by public funds. Notwithstanding the expenditure incurred, recent inquiries have shown that a large proportion of these schools are both financially and educationally in an unsatisfactory condition. Munificent endowments still support flourishing schools in certain places; but in some cases these endowments have been reduced by mismanagement; and too many of the schools are unable to support themselves in efficiency upon the fees of the scholars and the grants made by Government on the scale hitherto in force. Their most conspicuous want is well-qualified teachers, especially in schools for boys; and this cannot be met so long as their financial position precludes them from offering to the members of their staff fair salaries, security of tenure, and reasonable prospects of advancement. The Government in its turn is interested in maintaining a sufficient supply of well-educated Europeans to fill some of the posts for which officers are recruited in India; while without efficient schools the domiciled community must degenerate rapidly in this country. The Government of India are taking steps to ascertain and to supply the chief defects in the system. A single Inspector in each of the Provinces is being charged especially with the duty of inspecting European schools; a Training College for teachers in these schools is to be established at Allahabad, and stipends are to be provided for the students; a register of teachers will be formed, and, in future, no one will be employed without proper tuitional qualifications. The systems, both of grants-in-aid and of scholarships, are being revised on a more liberal basis; and more intelligent methods of testing efficiency are to be substituted for the rigid system of departmental examinations which has hitherto

prevailed. Measures will also be taken to secure the proper administration of endowments and to enforce sound methods of financial control in those schools which depend upon Government for assistance.

During the last thirty years the idea that the changed conditions of Indian life demand a change in the traditional modes of education has found ac-

Education of Native Chiefs and Nobles.

ceptance amongst the ruling Chiefs of Native States. Chiefs' Colleges have been established, of which the most important are those at Ajmer, Rajkot, and Lahore, where some of the features of the English public school system have been reproduced, with the object of fitting young Chiefs and Nobles physically, morally and intellectually for the responsibilities that lie before them. Convinced of the great importance of promoting this object, His Excellency the Viceroy has closely examined the organisation and conduct of these colleges, which appeared to admit of improvement, and has placed before the ruling Chiefs proposals of a comprehensive character for their reform. An increase will be made in the number of teachers of high qualifications to be engaged upon the staff; and in regulating the studies and discipline of the colleges, the aim being kept in view throughout will be the preparation of the sons of ruling Chiefs for the duties which await them, on lines which will combine the advantages of Western knowledge with loyalty to the traditions and usages of their families or States. The proposals have been received by the Chiefs with satisfaction; the interest of the aristocratic classes has been universally aroused in the scheme; and the institution of the Imperial Cadet Corps, which will in the main be recruited from these colleges, will assist to keep this interest alive. The Governor-General in Council confidently hopes that the reforms now in course of execution will result in giving a great impetus to the cause of education among the Indian nobility.

Technical education in India has hitherto been mainly directed to the higher forms of instruction required to train men for Government service

Technical Education.

as engineers, mechanicians, electricians, overseers, surveyors, revenue officers, or teachers in schools and for employment in railway workshops, cotton-mills, and mines. The institutions which have been established for these purposes, such as the Engineering Colleges at Rurki, Sibpur, and Madras, the College of Science at Poona, the Technical Institute at Bombay, and the Engineering School at Jubbulpur, have done and are doing valuable work, and their maintenance and further development are matters of great importance. The first call for fresh effort is now towards the development of Indian industries, and especially of those in which native capital may be invested. Technical instruction directed to this object must rest upon the basis of a preliminary general education of a simple and practical kind, which should be clearly distinguished from the special teaching that is to be based upon it, and should as a rule be imparted in schools of the ordinary type. In fixing the aim of the technical schools, the supply or expansion of the existing Indian markets is of superior importance to the creation of new export trades, and a clear line should be drawn between educational effort and commercial enterprise. As a step towards providing men qualified to take a leading part in the im-

provement of Indian industries, the Government of India have determined to give assistance in the form of scholarships to selected students to enable them to pursue a course of technical education under supervision in Europe or America. They hope that the technical schools of India may in time produce a regular supply of young men qualified to take advantage of such facilities, and that the good will and interest of the commercial community may be enlisted in the selection of industries to be studied, in finding the most suitable students for foreign training, and in turning their attainments to practical account upon their return to this country. The experience which has been gained in Japan and Siam of the results of sending young men abroad for study justifies the belief that the system will also be beneficial to Indian trade.

There are four Schools of Art in British India,—at Madras, Bombay, Calcutta, and Lahore. The aims to be pursued in them, and the methods

Schools of Art. proper to those aims, have been the subject of much discussion during recent years. The Government of India are of opinion that the true function of Indian Schools of Art is the encouragement of Indian Art and Art industries; and that in so far as they fail to promote these arts or industries, or provide a training that is dissociated from their future practice, or are utilised as commercial ventures, they are conducted upon erroneous principles. Their first object should be to teach such arts or art industries as the pupil intends to pursue when he has left the school. Examples of the arts which may thus be taught to those who will practise them professionally in future, or to drawing masters, are:—designing (with special reference to Indian arts and industries), drawing, painting, illumination, modelling, photography, and engraving. The art industries taught in Schools of Art should be such as are capable of being carried on in the locality, and in which improvement can be effected by instructing pupils or workmen by means of superior appliances, methods, or designs. Instruction in these arts or art industries should be directed to their expansion through the improvement of the skill and capacity of the pupil or workman, but it should not be pushed to the point of competing with local industries, of doing within the school what can equally well be done outside, or of usurping the sphere of private enterprise. The schools should not be converted into shops, nor should the officers of the Education Department be responsible for extensive commercial transactions; but samples of the wares produced may legitimately be kept for sale or for orders, and may be exhibited in public museums. A register of the workmen or pupils trained in school should be kept, with the object of enabling orders which may be received to be placed with advantage. The teaching should be in the hands of experts, trained as a rule in Indian Colleges or in Art Schools. The specialisation of a limited number of arts and art industries in the several schools should be preferred to the simultaneous teaching of a large number. Free admission and scholarships should, as a general rule, be discouraged, and should gradually be replaced by payment of fees; but this is compatible with giving necessary assistance to promising pupils and with the payment of wages to students as soon as their work becomes of value.

Industrial schools are intended to train intelligent artisans or foremen, and to further or develop those local industries which are capable of expansion by the application of improved methods or implements. Schools of this type are not numerous, nor have they at present succeeded in doing much to promote the growth of industries. A recent enumeration gives their total number as 123, with 8,405 pupils in attendance, and the number of different trades taught as 48.

Some are conducted by Government, either as separate institutions or attached to Schools of Art, while others are managed by local authorities, or by private persons under a system of grants-in-aid. Their shortcomings are obvious and admitted. A large proportion of the pupils who attend them have no intention of practising the trade they learn, but pass into clerical and other employments, using the industrial schools merely in order to obtain that general education which they could acquire in ordinary schools at less cost to the State, but at greater cost to themselves. Even for those who do intend to follow the trades taught in the industrial schools, it is feared that in some cases the teaching given does not provide a training of a sufficiently high standard to enable them to hold their own with artisans who have learnt their craft in the *bazaar*. The industries selected are frequently not those which are locally of most importance, and there is an undue predominance of carpentry and blacksmiths' work amongst them.

An attempt will now be made to remedy these defects. The Government of India do not expect a large immediate increase in the number of industrial schools, and they desire rather to encourage experiment than to prescribe fixed types for this form of education. Admission will be confined to those boys who are known by their caste or occupation to be likely to practise in after life the handicrafts taught in the schools, and the courses of study will be so ordered as not to lend themselves to the manufacture of clerks, but to bear exclusively upon carefully selected industries. A distinction will be drawn between those types of school which will be suitable for the large centres of industry, where capital is invested on a great scale and the need of trained artisans is already recognised by the employers, and those adapted to places where hand industries prevail, and where the belief in the value of technical training has yet to make its way. In the former the prospects are favourable for the establishment of completely equipped trade schools, such as are found in other countries; in the latter, search has still to be made for the kind of institution which will take root in Indian soil. Suggestions for experiment based upon observation of the habits and tendencies of Indian artisans have been placed before the Local Governments. They will be pursued further under the advice of skilled experts in particular industries.

A system of education intended to impart "useful and practical knowledge, suitable to every station in life," cannot be considered complete without an ample provision than exists at present in

Commercial Education. India for school training definitely adapted to commercial life. There is at present no University course of training of a specialised description for business men; in the field of secondary education the establishment of examinations and the inclusion of commercial sub-

jects in the optional lists of subjects of examination have outstripped the progress made in the organisation of courses of instruction. The beginnings which have been made at Bombay, Lucknow, Calicut, Amritsar, and elsewhere, show that the attempt to provide suitable courses meets with encouraging response; and increased attention will now be given to the extension of such teaching in large centres of commerce and population. The proper development of the teaching demands that it should be adapted to Indian needs, and should not be based merely upon English text-books. The London Chamber of Commerce examinations supply a convenient test for those pupils (especially Europeans) who are likely to proceed to England. Commercial courses, leading up to this or other examinations, are now being placed upon an equality with purely literary courses as a qualification for Government service. But their chief aim will be to supply practical training for those who are to enter business houses either in a superior or subordinate capacity. Registers will be kept of the pupils who have been so trained, and endeavours will be made to find employment for them by communication with Chambers of Commerce and mercantile firms. The Government of India trust that they may look for the co-operation of the mercantile community in framing suitable courses of instruction, and in giving preference in selecting employés to those who have qualified themselves by directing their studies towards those subjects which will be useful in commercial life.

For a country where two-thirds of the population are dependent for their livelihood on the produce of the soil, it must be admitted that the provision for agricultural education in India is at present meagre and stands in serious need of expansion and reorganisation.

At present, while the necessity for developing the agricultural resources of the country is generally recognised, India possesses no institution capable of imparting a complete agricultural education. The existing schools and colleges have not wholly succeeded, either in theory or in practice. They have neither produced scientific experts, nor succeeded in attracting members of the land-holding classes to qualify themselves as practical agriculturists. Both of these defects must be supplied before any real progress can be looked for. In the first place an organisation must be created by which men qualified to carry on the work of research, and to raise the standard of teaching, can be trained in India itself. Before agriculture can be adequately taught in the vernacular, suitable text-books must be produced, and this can only be done by men who have learnt the subject in English. The Government of India have therefore under their consideration a scheme for the establishment of an Imperial Agricultural College in connection with an Experimental Farm and Research Laboratory, to be carried on under the general direction of the Inspector-General of Agriculture, at which it is intended to provide a thorough training in all branches of agricultural science, combined with constant practice in farming work and estate management. In addition to shorter courses for those students who are intended for lower posts, there will be courses of instruction extending to five years, which will qualify men to fill posts in the Department of Agriculture itself, such as those of Assistant Directors, Research Experts, Superintendents of Farms, Pro-

fessors, Teachers, and Managers of Court of Wards and Encumbered Estates. It is hoped that a demand may arise among the land-owning classes for men with agricultural attainments and that the proposed institution may succeed in meeting that demand. Arrangements will also be made to admit to the higher courses those who have undergone preliminary training at the Provincial colleges; and thereby to exercise upon those colleges an influence tending gradually to raise their standard of efficiency.

If the teaching in secondary schools is to be raised to a higher level,—if the pupils are to be cured of their tendency to rely upon learning notes and text-books by heart, if, in a word, European knowledge is to be diffused by the methods proper to it,—then it is most necessary that the teachers should themselves be trained in the art of teaching.

Training Colleges. The details of the measures taken with that object are already engaging the attention of the various Local Governments. But the general principles upon which the Government of India desire to see training institutions developed are these. An adequate staff of well-trained members of the Indian Educational Service is required, and for this purpose it will be necessary to enlist more men of ability and experience in the work of higher training. The equipment of a Training College for secondary teachers is at least as important as that of an Arts College, and the work calls for the exercise of abilities as great as those required in any branch of the Educational Service. The period of training for students must be at least two years, except in the case of graduates, for whom one year's training may suffice. For the graduates the course of instruction will be chiefly directed towards imparting to them a knowledge of the principles which underlie the art of teaching, and some degree of technical skill in the practice of the art. It should be a University course, culminating in a University degree or diploma. For the others, the course should embrace the extension, consolidation, and revision of their general studies; but the main object should be to render them capable teachers, and no attempt should be made to prepare them for any higher external examination. The scheme of instruction should be determined by the authorities of the Training College and by the Education Department; and the examination at the close of it should be controlled by the same authorities. The training in the theory of teaching should be closely associated with its practice, and for this purpose good practising schools should be attached to each college, and should be under the control of the same authority. The practising school should be fully equipped with well-trained teachers, and the students should see examples of the best teaching, and should teach under capable supervision. It is desirable that the Training College should be furnished with a good library, and with a museum, in which should be exhibited samples, models, illustrations, or records of the school work of the Province. Every possible care should be taken to maintain a connection between the Training College and the school, so that the student on leaving the college and entering upon his career as a teacher may not neglect to practise the methods which he has been taught, and may not (as sometimes happens) be prevented from doing so and forced to fall into line with the more mechanical methods of his untrained colleagues. The

trained students whom the college has sent out should be occasionally brought together again, and the inspecting staff should co-operate with the Training College authorities in seeing that the influence of the college makes itself felt in the schools.

The institution of Normal Schools for primary teachers, which was enjoined by the Despatch of 1854, has been very generally carried out. Recent inquiries into the sufficiency of their number have shown that an increase is called for in some Provinces, and provision is being made for this increase,

Training Schools for Primary Teachers. its possibility depending partly upon the salaries paid to primary teachers being sufficient to induce men to undergo a course of training. The usual type of normal school is a boarding school, where students who have received a vernacular education are maintained by stipends and receive further general education, combined with instruction in the methods of teaching, and practice in teaching, under supervision. The course differs in length in the different Provinces. In future it will as a general rule be for not less than two years.

Great importance is attached by the Government of India to the provision of hostels or boarding-houses, under proper supervision, in connection with colleges and secondary schools. These institutions

Hostels or Boarding-houses. protect the students who live in them from the moral dangers of life in large towns; they provide common interest and create a spirit of healthy companionship; and they are in accord not only with the usage of English public schools and colleges, but also with the ancient Indian tradition that the pupil should live in the charge of his teacher. Missionary bodies have joined with alacrity in the extension of this movement. The Local Governments have been active both in founding hostels for Government colleges and schools and in aiding their provision. The Government of India believe that the system of hostels, if extended with due regard for its essential principles, which include direct supervision by resident teachers, is destined to exercise a profound influence on student life in India and to correct many of the shortcomings which now attend our educational methods.

The reduction in the number of examinations which is being carried out, and the general raising of educational standards which is contemplated demand an increased stringency in inspection and a substantial strengthening of the inspecting staff.

Inspecting Staff. In the Despatch of 1854, it was enjoined that inspectors should "conduct, or assist at, the examination of the scholars . . . and generally, by their advice, aid the managers and schoolmasters in conducting colleges and schools of every description throughout the country." The latter function is no less important than the former, and calls for wider educational knowledge, greater initiative, and the exercise of a wise discretion in adapting means to ends. It is a task which will provide worthy occupation for men who are imbued with the best traditions in the matter of school management, and it is through the influence of such men alone that there is any real prospect of its accomplishment. Their assistance can only be enlisted by increasing the cadre of the Indian Educational Service. Some additions in the lower branches

of the inspectorate are also needed in order to provide for a complete system of inspection *in situ* instead of collective examinations. The Government of India do not require that inspectors should be precluded from having recourse to examinations as a means of inspection; but they desire that inspectors should be much more than mere examiners. They should not only judge the results of teaching, but should guide and advise as to its methods; and it is essential that they should be familiar with the schools in their ordinary working conditions. The work of schools should be defined with reference rather to the courses of instruction followed than to the examinations that have to be passed, and rigid uniformity either in the arrangement of subjects or in the classification of the scholars should be avoided, free play being given to the proper adaptation of the working of the schools to their local circumstances.

The Education Department is divided into the superior and the subordinate services. The superior service consists of two branches, called respectively the Indian and the Provincial educational

Officials of the Educational Services.

services, of which the former is recruited in England and the latter in India. The opportunities and responsibilities which work in the Department brings to an officer of this service give scope for a wide range of intellectual activity. Such an officer takes an active part in the profoundly interesting experiment of introducing an Eastern people to Western knowledge and modern methods of research; he comes into contact with the remains of an earlier civilisation and the traditions of ancient learning; he can choose between the career of a professor and that of an educational administrator; and in either capacity he has great opportunity of exercising personal influence and promoting the best interests of genuine education. In order that members of the Indian educational service may keep themselves abreast of the advances which are now being made in other countries in the science of education, facilities are given to them while on furlough to study the theory and practice of all branches of education both in England and in other parts of the world. The part, already considerable, that is taken by natives of India in the advancement of their countrymen in modern methods of intellectual training will, it is hoped, assume an even greater importance in the future. If the reforms now contemplated in the whole system of instruction are successfully carried out, it may be expected that the educational service will offer steadily increasing attractions to the best educational talent. Where the problems to be solved are so complex, and the interests at stake so momentous, India is entitled to ask for the highest intellect and culture that either English or Indian seats of learning can furnish for her needs.

The Governor-General in Council has now passed in review the history and progress of Western education under British rule in India, the objects which

Conclusion. it seeks to accomplish and the means which it employs. It has been shown how indigenous methods of instruction were tried and found wanting; how in 1854 the broad outlines of a comprehensive scheme of national education were for the first time determined; how the principles then accepted have been consistently followed ever since; how they were affirmed by the Education Commission of 1882, and how they are now

being further extended and developed, in response to the growing needs of the country by the combined efforts of the Government of India and the Provincial Governments. The system of education thus extended makes provision in varying degrees for all forms of intellectual activity that appeal to a civilised community. It seeks to satisfy the aspirations of students in the domains of learning and research; it supplies the Government with a succession of upright and intelligent public servants; it trains workers in every branch of commercial enterprise that has made good its footing in India; it attempts to develop the resources of the country and to stimulate and improve indigenous arts and industries; it offers to all classes of society a training suited to their position in life; and for these ends it is organised on lines which admit of indefinite expansion as the demand for education grows and public funds or private liberality afford a larger measure of support. It rests with the people themselves to make a wise use of the opportunities that are offered to them and to realise that education in the true sense means something more than the acquisition of so much positive knowledge, something higher than the mere passing of examinations, that it aims at the progressive and orderly development of all the faculties of the mind, that it should form character and teach right conduct—that it is, in fact, a preparation for the business of life. If this essential truth is overlooked or imperfectly appreciated, the labours of the Government of India to elevate the standard of education in this country and to inspire it with higher ideals will assuredly fail to produce substantial and enduring results. Those labours have been undertaken in the hope that they will command the hearty support of the leaders of native thought and of the great body of workers in the field of Indian Education. On them the Governor-General in Council relies to carry on and complete a task which the Government can do no more than begin.

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN BURMA.

The persons responsible, with the officers of the Education Department, for the educational administration in the Province of Burma are: (a) the officers of the Civil Administration, from Commissioners to *Myoóks*; (b) Municipal and Town Committees.

The following orders by the Government of India define the general position of the district officer in educational matters:—

<p>A District Officer, whether a Deputy Commissioner or a Commissioner, is responsible for the state of education generally in his district, and the Education Department is the instrument in his hand for carrying out this responsibility, just as the police is the instrument in his hand for carrying out his responsibility for the peace of his district. But there is this difference that whereas the local limits of the Police Officer's jurisdiction are generally coterminous with those of the District Officer's</p>	<p>Responsibility of District Officers in Educational Matters.</p>
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jurisdiction, the limits of the circle of the Educational Officers are not so, but have been differently arranged.

This, however, does not affect the principle of responsibility, and the Educational Officer is subordinate to the District Officer within the jurisdiction of the latter, just as the Police Officer is also subordinate to the District Officer; but in neither case is the departmental responsibility of the Educational or Police Officer to the head of their respective departments affected.

In this view the District Officer will require the advice and assistance of the Education Department, over which in his district he will exercise a general control; but it is only right that the appointment of schoolmasters, the choice of curricula of study, the prescription of forms or statistics, to be kept up, should be vested in the Education Department, under such rules as the supreme local authority, whether a Chief Commissioner or a Local Government, may lay down. (Extract from letter No. 663, dated 13th of November 1868, of the Government of India, in the Home Department.)

The main duty of the Education Department is the inspection of public schools, but the officers of the Department are bound to further the cause of education in every possible way. For the purposes of inspection the Province is divided into four circles, the Eastern, Western, Central, and Northern, each under an Inspector of Schools, with his headquarters in the case of the first three at Rangoon, and of the fourth at Mandalay.

The Inspectors of Schools are responsible for the inspection of schools of all grades, and for testing and checking the work of the Deputy Inspectors and Sub-inspectors. It is also the duty of the Inspector of Schools to see that the conditions on which grants are given to schools are fulfilled.

The Inspectors of Schools furnish the Director of Public Instruction with:—

(1) A list, for publication in the *Burma Gazette* early in each year, of the dates fixed by them for the examination of public schools, and for the tours of themselves and of the Assistant Inspectors;

(2) A diary with a detailed report on each school, at the close of their inspection, and a general report on each district at the close of their tour therein;

(3) A general report for each official year, due punctually on the 1st of June.

In the preparation of their annual reports the Inspectors of Schools adopt the arrangement and section heading prescribed by the Government of India for the annual departmental report of the Province.

For the special supervision of indigenous primary schools each circle of inspection is subdivided into sub-circles (corresponding usually with civil districts), each of which is placed under a Deputy Inspector of Schools.

In every municipal town the general control of educational affairs is intrusted to the Municipal or Town Committee.* It

Position of Municipal
and Town Committees
in regard to Education.

is not intended that Municipal Committees shall relieve Educational Officers of duties for which they have been specially trained and appointed; but

Committees are in the best position to judge of local feeling and local wants, and it is for them to represent these in the practical educational administration. The following instructions are issued to Municipal and Town Committees:—

In the richer towns, in addition to the indigenous primary schools, which should be the first care of Committees, it should be their duty to encourage the establishment and maintenance of secondary schools. In poorer towns, the expenditure on scholarships and special grants should, if necessary, give way to the more pressing calls for results-grants, certificated teachers, and certificated pupil-teachers. The principle laid down is that indigenous primary education has the first claim on the public funds, and that the rate of fee charged in an indigenous secondary or in an Anglo-Vernacular school should not be as low as (i) to necessitate an expenditure of public funds disproportionate to the amount contributed from private sources, or (ii) to compete unduly with the indigenous primary schools.

It should be a standing principle that private enterprise in education is to be encouraged as much as possible and in no case to be unnecessarily superseded by direct public agency. It should be the aim of Municipal Committees gradually to withdraw from the direct maintenance of schools as it becomes possible for private agency subsidised by public grants to meet the wants of the town.

Subject to such considerations, it is desirable that the system of public education should be, as far as possible, uniform throughout the Province. Committees should therefore be guided in their management of educational affairs by the standing orders of Government in the Education Department. They should freely consult the officers of the department in all educational matters and should be guided by their advice.

The Inspector of Schools of the circle in which a Municipal town is situated is responsible for the inspection of all schools within the municipality, and for the control of the local Deputy Inspector of Schools.

*This and the following paragraphs to the commencement of the section on "The Staff of the Education Department" are not applicable to Upper Burma.

The schools which come under the control of a Municipal or Town Committee are: (a) Municipal schools maintained entirely from Municipal funds; (b) registered aided schools,—that is, schools registered by the Director of Public Instruction for aid under the Grant-in-Aid Rules; (c) indigenous aided schools.

In Municipal schools the scale of establishment is determined by the Committee, subject to the standing orders of the Government in the Education Department. The grade of the school is determined by the Education Department, according to standard of instruction and the teaching staff maintained. The course of study is regulated by the authorised Provincial standards.

All teachers are appointed by the Committee, subject to the rules of the Education Department; but, where the salary of a teacher is Rs. 50 *per mensem* and upwards, the appointment is subject to the approval of the Director of Public Instruction. The promotion and dismissal of teachers rest with the Committee, except in the case of Government officers whose services have been lent to a Municipality. Promotion and increments to salary are regulated by length of service, qualifications, and the report of the Inspector of Schools.

The minimum fee to be levied in Government, Municipal, and aided Anglo-Vernacular schools is Rs. 1 a month for Infant, I. and II. Standards; Rs. 2 for Standards III. and IV.; Rs. 3 for Standards V., VI., and VII.; and Rs. 4 for Standards VIII. and IX.

The registration of schools and the aiding of registered schools is regulated entirely by the standing Grant-in-Aid Rules.* All grants under these rules, excepting additional grants for Europeans and other specified races, are payable from Municipal funds.

Indigenous schools are aided under the standing rules for salary-grants, results-grants, and pupil-teacher grants. The selection of schools for aid in the form of salary-grants for certified teachers is made by the Director of Public Instruction, and the refusal of aid to, or withdrawal of aid from, any school on other than financial grounds is subject to his approval.

The number of schools in the Province managed by Municipal and Town Committees in 1905 was 17, with 3,638 scholars on the rolls on March 31, 1905, and an average daily attendance during the year of 2,947 scholars.

* See pp. 315-331.

Under section 73 of the Burma Municipal Act III. of 1898, a school fund must be maintained in every municipal town in Lower Burma, to which the Act applies, for educational purposes. Unspent balances at the close of each year are carried forward to the credit of the school fund.

Municipal School Funds. The annual estimates of educational expenditure are prepared in consultation with the Inspector of Schools, whose duty it is to draft the estimates of expenditure for municipal, registered aided, and indigenous aided schools, and to submit them for the approval of the Committee.

THE BURMA EDUCATIONAL SYNDICATE.

The constitution and functions of the Educational Syndicate, Burma are shown in the following Memorandum of Association:

MEMORANDUM OF ASSOCIATION OF THE SOCIETY KNOWN AS THE BURMA EDUCATIONAL SYNDICATE.

UNDER ACT XXI OF 1860.

(Act for the Registration of Literary, Scientific, and Charitable Societies.)

(1) The name of the Society is the Burma Educational Syndicate.

(2) The objects for which the Society is established are to regulate public examinations in the Province of Burma, and generally to promote education and to advise the Government on educational matters in that Province.

RULES AND REGULATIONS OF THE BURMA EDUCATIONAL SYNDICATE.

Constitution of the Syndicate.

(1) The Syndicate shall consist of not less than 20 members including the President and Vice-President.

(2) (a) As far as possible all educational interests shall be represented on the Syndicate.

(b) The Chief Judge of the Chief Court, Lower Burma, one other of the Judges of the Chief Court of Lower Burma, and the Director of Public Instruction or the persons for the time being executing the functions now exercised by those officers, shall be members of the Syndicate by virtue of their offices.

(c) The syndicate shall also include the following:—

(i) one European Inspector of Schools;

(ii) one Burman Inspector or Deputy Inspector of Schools;

- (iii) one European officer of the Commission;
- (iv) one Burman officer of the Commission;
- (v) one officer of the Survey or Public Works Department;
- (vi) one Barrister-at-Law;
- (vii) one member of the Medical profession.

(3) A roll or list of the members of the Syndicate shall be kept in manner prescribed by bye-laws duly made in accordance with these rules and regulations.

(4) The persons whose names are subscribed to the Memorandum of Association, dated the 4th March 1886, shall, on signing the roll or list of members, be deemed to have been admitted into the Syndicate and to be the first members thereof.

(5) The Lieutenant-Governor of Burma may, from time to time, but subject to the provisions of clause 2 of these rules and regulations, appoint such new members as he thinks fit; and every person so appointed shall, on signing the roll or list of members, be deemed to have been duly admitted into, and to be a member of, the Syndicate. The signature of the roll by a duly constituted Attorney shall be a sufficient signature within the meaning of section 15 of Act XXI of 1860.

(6) A member of the Syndicate may at any time resign by notifying in writing his intention to do so to the Lieutenant-Governor, and on his resignation being accepted by the Lieutenant-Governor, he shall vacate his seat on the Syndicate.

(7) (i) A member of the Syndicate shall resign—

- (a) if, being at the time of his appointment a resident of Rangoon, he has been absent from Rangoon for more than one year; or
- (b) if, being at the time of his appointment a resident of any other part of Burma, he has been absent from Burma for more than one year; or
- (c) if he is requested by the Lieutenant-Governor to resign.

(ii) If the member required by this rule to resign does not notify his intention to do so to the Lieutenant-Governor within one week from the close of the year for which he has been absent from Rangoon or from Burma, as the case may be, or within one week from the date on which he has been requested to resign, he shall, at the expiration of the week, be deemed to have resigned, and to have ceased to be a member of the Syndicate.

(8) The names of the members of the Syndicate for the time being shall be published in the *Burma Gazette* in the month of January of each year.

Governing body.

(9) (a) The Governing body of the Syndicate shall consist of an Executive Committee composed of seven members of the Syndicate of whom one shall be the President, another the Vice-President, the remaining five members being elected for one year by the Syndicate: provided that not less than two out of the seven shall be natives of Burma or of India, and that not less than three out of the seven shall be non-officials.

(b) The election of the members of the Executive Committee shall take place at the last meeting of the official year next before the year for which members are to serve.

(c) The Executive Committee shall meet ordinarily once a month and at other times when convened by the President.

(d) All members of the Executive Committee must be resident in or near Rangoon. If any member be temporarily absent from Rangoon, the President may appoint a member to officiate during his absence. Should the period of absence exceed three consecutive months, or should a member absent himself from three consecutive monthly meetings, the President may declare his place vacant.

(e) On every vacancy in the Executive Committee caused by death, resignation, absence from Rangoon, or otherwise, the President shall select a new member for the remainder of the current official year.

(f) Four members of the Executive Committee shall constitute a quorum, and all questions shall be decided by a majority of the votes of the members present.

(g) The President or the Vice-President, or, in their absence, a member to be elected by those present, shall preside at all meetings of the Executive Committee, and, if the votes, including that of the President, are equally divided, the President shall have a casting vote.

(h) It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee to provide for the conduct of the Provincial examinations noted in the margin, and such further

(1) Examination for Myoôkships.

(2) Examination for Advocateships.

(3) Examination for Thugyiships.

(4) Teachers' Certificate Examinations.

(5) Examination for Clerkships.

(6) Examination in Burmese.

examinations as the Lieutenant-Governor may from time to time approve of their undertaking; to frame detailed regulations for the superintendence and conduct of such examinations; to appoint examiners for such examinations, and, if necessary, cancel such ap-

pointments; to determine the fees to be paid by candidates for examination, and, subject to the standing orders of the Government of India and to the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor, the fees to be paid to examiners and superintendents; and, subject to the Lieutenant-Governor's control, to regulate the percentage of marks required to qualify in each subject in each examination for a pass and for honours; to finally decide upon the reports of examiners what candidates have passed at each examination, and to publish the names of the successful candidates in the *Burma Gazette*; to grant certificates, scholarships, honours, and rewards; to advise and assist the Lieutenant-Governor in determining the Provincial standards for schools of all grades; to keep the accounts of the Syndicate; to frame a budget estimate for the ensuing financial year of the receipts and expenditure of the Syndicate for submission to the Lieutenant-Governor in such form as he may direct; to transfer, if necessary, money from one sanctioned grant to another in the course of the year; to frame and submit, if the Syndicate desire to exceed the total budget provision of the year, a supplementary budget for the sanction of Government; to submit to the Lieutenant-Governor on or

before the 15th September of each year, in such form as he may direct, an annual report of the proceedings of the Syndicate, including a summary of the results of all examinations conducted by the Syndicate during the past official year, together with a statement of its actual receipts and disbursements during that year; to correspond on the business of the Syndicate with the Government and all other authorities and persons; to undertake the management of the Rangoon College,* and of the Rangoon Collegiate School; and to undertake the care and custody of the Bernard Free Library and of the Hall.

(i) The Executive Committee shall from time to time frame such bye-laws consistent with these rules and regulations as may be necessary, subject to the approval of the Syndicate and of the Lieutenant-Governor.

(j) Any member or number of members of the Syndicate may make any recommendation to the Executive Committee, and may propose any by-law for the consideration of the Executive Committee.

(k) The decision of the Executive Committee on any such recommendation or proposition, or any matter whatever, may be brought before the Syndicate by any member of the Syndicate at one of its meetings, and the Syndicate may approve, revise, or modify any such decision, or may direct the Executive Committee to review it.

(l) No question shall be considered by the Syndicate that has not in the first instance been considered and decided by the Executive Committee.

President and Vice-President.

(10) (a) The President and Vice-President of the Syndicate shall be appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor, and their appointments shall be for two years; provided that the Lieutenant-Governor may, if he thinks fit, re-appoint any President, or Vice-President, whose term of office has expired under this clause.

(b) Both the President and Vice-President must be members of the Syndicate and residents of Rangoon.

Notifications of Appointments.

(11) Every appointment of a member, President, or Vice-President of the Syndicate shall be honorary, and shall be notified in the *Burma Gazette*.

Supplemental Provisions as to Functions of Syndicate.

(12) (a) Subject to any agreement between the Syndicate and the Lieutenant-Governor and to the terms of any trust, endowments intrusted to the care of the Syndicate for educational purposes may be held and applied by the Syndicate in such manner as it thinks fit.

(b) It shall be within the province of the Syndicate to advise the Lieutenant-Governor generally in all matters connected with the educational interests

*On November 16, 1904, the administrative and financial control of the Rangoon College was transferred from the Educational Syndicate to the Education Department of the Government of Burma.

of the Province, and to frame proposals for imparting instruction in literature, science, and art.

Officers and Servants.

(13) The Executive Committee shall appoint and may remove all such officers and servants as may be necessary and proper for the efficient execution of the duties that may be imposed upon or be undertaken by it, and may assign to such officers and servants such pay as it thinks fit; provided that, without the previous sanction of the Lieutenant-Governor, the pay of no such officer or servant shall exceed two hundred and fifty rupees a month.

Finance.

(14) (i) The moneys belonging to the Syndicate shall constitute a fund, to be called the "Syndicate Fund," and there shall be placed to the credit thereof—

- (a) all sums at the disposal of the Syndicate at the time of its registration under Act XXI of 1860;
- (b) all sums that may, from time to time, be contributed to the fund by the Government, local bodies, or private persons, and
- (c) all fees and other moneys that may, from time to time, be received by the Syndicate in the discharge of its functions under these rules and regulations.

(ii) The balance standing at the credit of the Syndicate shall be kept in the Government Treasury or invested in Government securities.

(iii) The Syndicate Fund shall be applicable to the payment of the charges and expenses incidental to the execution of the duties that may be imposed upon or be undertaken by the Syndicate under these rules and regulations.

(iv) No money shall be paid from the Syndicate Fund, except on an order signed by the Registrar and countersigned by the President or Vice-President.

(15) The accounts of the Syndicate shall be kept in such form as the Lieutenant-Governor may, from time to time, prescribe, and shall be audited by the Accountant-General.

Suits by and against the Syndicate.

(16) The Syndicate shall sue and be sued in the name of the President.

Conduct of Business of the Syndicate.

(17) The Syndicate shall meet quarterly and at such other times as may be appointed.

(18) The President alone, or any five members of the Syndicate, may at any time summon a meeting thereof.

(19) No business shall be transacted at any meeting unless at least eight members are present thereat in person.

(20) The President, or, in his absence, the Vice-President, shall take the chair at all meetings of the Syndicate; and if at any meeting neither of them be present within 10 minutes after the time appointed for holding the same, the members present shall choose some one of their number to preside at the meeting.

(21) Save as otherwise provided by Act XXI of 1860, all questions coming before a meeting of the Syndicate shall be decided by a majority of votes delivered by members in person; and, in case of an equality of votes, the President of the meeting shall have a second or casting vote.

(22) Minutes of the proceedings of the Syndicate at meetings shall be published in the *Burma Gazette*.

Duties of Registrar.

(23) The duties of the Registrar, subject to the directions of the governing body, shall be to conduct the correspondence and keep the accounts of the Syndicate; to be responsible, under the standing rules of the Syndicate, for the secret printing of question-papers, for their despatch to local centres of examination, for the receipt and distribution to examiners of the answer-papers, and for the correct tabulation of examination results as reported by examiners; to prepare and lay before the Executive Committee the annual budget of the Syndicate of receipt and expenditure for the ensuing year; to prepare and lay before the Executive Committee the annual report of the Syndicate with a Statement of actual receipts and disbursements for the past year; to keep a cash account of receipts and disbursements on account of the Syndicate, and to lay the same monthly before the Executive Committee for examination and countersignature by the President or the Vice-President; to attend all meetings of the Syndicate and of the Executive Committee; to draft minutes of the proceedings thereof for the approval of the President; to circulate the minutes of proceedings of both bodies amongst the members of the Syndicate; to notify to members the time and place of meetings and the business to be transacted thereat; and generally to carry out the orders of the Executive Committee.

Modification of Rules and Regulations.

(24) At a meeting at which three-fifths of the members of the Syndicate are present in person or represented by proxy, the Syndicate may, from time to time, with the previous sanction of the Lieutenant-Governor, alter these rules and regulations; provided that before altering any of them the Syndicate shall publish in every successive issue of the *Burma Gazette* for one month a draft of the proposed alterations with a notice specifying a date at or after which the draft will be taken into consideration; and shall, before submitting the alterations for the sanction of the Lieutenant-Governor, receive and consider any objection or suggestion which may be made by any person with respect to the draft before the date so specified.

(25) A fair copy of the rules and regulations for the time being in

force shall be kept by the Registrar and shall be open to the inspection of any person without payment at any time during the ordinary hours of business.

STAFF OF THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

The officials of the Education Department of Burma are divided into three classes, as follows:—

1. Members of the *Indian Educational Service*. On Jan. 1, 1906, the following posts were held by members of the Indian Educational Service: Director of Public Instruction; 5 Inspectors of Schools; the Principals of the Amalgated High and Normal Schools at Rangoon and Moulmein; the Principal of the Rangoon College; the Senior Lecturer, Rangoon College.

2. Members of the *Provincial Educational Service*. On Jan. 1, 1906, the following posts were held by members of the Provincial Educational Service: 4 Assistant Inspectors of Schools; the Head Master of the Government Collegiate School, Rangoon; the Head Master of the Government High School, Moulmein; the Head Master of the Government School of Engineering, Insein; the Editor of the Vernacular School Text-books; the Superintendent of the Reformatory School, Insein; the Lecturers in English, Mathematics, and Pali, Rangoon College.

3. Members of the *Subordinate Educational Service*. On Jan. 1, 1906, the following posts were held by members of the Subordinate Educational Service: 50 Deputy Inspectors of Schools; 12 Sub-inspectors of Schools; the Head Master of the Government European High School, Maymyo; the Head Master of the Government High School, Thazi; the Head Master of the Government School for the Sons of Shan Chiefs, Taunggyi; the Head Master of the Government High School, Minbu; the Head Masters of the Government Normal Schools at Moulmein, Mandalay, Rangoon, and Akyab.

SALARIES IN THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

The following table shows the salaries and allowances of officials of the Education Department in Burma. Where two sums appear as the salary of a post, the first represents the lowest pay of the appointment, the last the highest pay which can be attained in that appointment. The following abbreviations are used in the table: L. A., Local Allowance; F. T. A., Fixed Trav-

elling Allowance; C. A., Conveyance Allowance; P. A., Personal Allowance.

	Salary <i>per</i> <i>Month</i> (Rupees).	Allowance <i>per</i> <i>Month</i> (Rupees).
Director of Public Instruction	1,500—2,000	
1 Inspector of Schools	750—1,000	L. A. 100
4 Inspectors of Schools	500—1,000	L. A. 100
4 Assistant Inspectors of Schools	300—400	L. A. 100
Deputy Inspectors of Schools:		
Two 1st grade	250	F. T. A. 50
Nine 2d grade	200	F. T. A. 50
Thirteen 3d grade	150	F. T. A. 50
Twenty-six 4th grade	120	F. T. A. 50
Sub-inspectors of Schools:		
Four 1st grade	100	F. T. A. 30
Eight 2d grade	80	F. T. A. 30
Principal, Govt. High and Normal Schools, Moulmein	500—650	L. A. 100
Principal, Collegiate and Normal School, Rangoon	500—750	L. A. 100
Head Master, Govt. Collegiate School, Rangoon	400—500	
Head Master, Govt. High School, Moulmein	400	
Second Master, Govt. Collegiate School, Rangoon	300—400	
Head Master, Bassein High School	300	Free quarters.
Head Master, High School, Maymyo	200—300	
Head Master, High School, Thazi	200—300	
Head Master, High School, Minbu	200—300	
Head Master, Govt. School for the Sons of Shan Chiefs, Taunggyi	200—300	L. A. 75
Head Master, Govt. Normal School, Mandalay	200—250	C. A. 15
Head Master, Govt. Normal School, Moulmein	300	
Head Master, Govt. Normal School, Rangoon	200—250	C. A. 20
Head Master, Govt. Normal School, Akyab	200—250	
Head Master, Govt. School of Engineering	300	Free quarters.
Editor Vernacular School Text-books	250	P. A. 50
Superintendent, Reformatory School, Insein	200—250	P. A. 50
Principal, Rangoon College	750—1,000	L. A. 200—250
*Senior Lecturer, Rangoon College	500—1,000	
Lecturer in English, Rangoon College	500—700	
Mathematical Lecturer, Rangoon College	300—500	
Lecturer in Law, Rangoon College	300	
Assistant Lecturer in Law, Rangoon College	200	
Assistant Lecturer in Science, Rangoon College	100—150	

CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

The work of the Education Department of Burma is primarily one of inspection and control. The Department does not ordinarily undertake the management of schools and colleges. It is the policy of the Government of India to encourage the manage-

* Lecturer in Chemistry and Physical Science.

ment of schools and colleges by Local bodies and private associations or persons. The definitions which follow explain how schools are classified by the Department for purposes of inspection and control.

College means an institution at which instruction is given in the course of Degrees, prescribed by a University in one or more of its faculties, to students who have passed the Entrance examination. It includes institutions which teach for the First Arts examination, these being termed *Second Grade Colleges*.

School means an institution at which instruction other than collegiate is imparted.

Schools and colleges have been divided by the Government of India into public institutions and private institutions.

Public Institution means a school or college—

- (i) in which the course of study conforms to the standards prescribed by the Local Government or by the University of Calcutta; and
- (ii) which either is inspected by the Education Department or presents pupils at the public examinations held by the Department or by the Calcutta University.

Private Institution means a school or college which does not come within the above definition.

A public school or college is classed as a *public institution under public management*—

- (i) when it is under the direct management of Government or of officers or committees acting on behalf of Government or of local committees constituted by law; and
- (ii) when the staff of teachers is appointed and dismissed by Government or by such officers or committees.

A public school or college under the management of a private person or association is classed as a *public institution under private management*.

Aided School means a school under private management, that receives any aid whatever, either directly or indirectly, from public revenues, whether Imperial, Provincial, Local, or Municipal.

Indigenous School means a school established and managed by natives of India or Burma, and conducted on native methods, and includes—

- (a) indigenous monastic schools;
- (b) indigenous lay schools.

NOTE.—Schools established with any of the missionary bodies at work in Burma, which follow the indigenous school standards, are classed for the purpose of receiving grants as indigenous schools.

Public Institutions are classed according to the nature of the education imparted in them. Such education is of three kinds,—

- (a) University education;
- (b) School education, general;
- (c) School education, special.

Institutions which impart University education are called Colleges. They are affiliated to an Indian University, and are divided into—

- (a) Arts Colleges;
- (b) Professional Colleges.*

Arts Colleges are divided into—

- (i) English Colleges, the students of which have passed the Matriculation (or Entrance) examination, and are reading a course prescribed by the University for Degrees in Arts;
- (ii) Oriental Colleges, the students of which have passed an examination declared by the Local Government to be equal in difficulty to the Matriculation examination, and are reading a course of Oriental subjects prescribed by the University.†

Professional Colleges include colleges, or departments of colleges, the students of which have passed the Matriculation examination, and are reading for Degrees in Law, Medicine, or Engineering.

Institutions which impart general school education are divided into—

- (i) Primary schools.
- (ii) Secondary schools.

A *Primary School* teaches reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography, from the rudiments up to a standard defined by the Local Government.

The Primary School course ordinarily occupies from four to five years.

A *Secondary School* imparts a course of instruction more advanced than that given in a Primary School, but not going beyond the Matriculation standard of the University.

Secondary schools are divided into—

- (i) *Anglo-Vernacular*, in which instruction in English forms part of the regular course;
- (ii) *Vernacular*, in which English is not taught.

* At the present time there are no Professional Colleges in Burma.

† At the present time there are no Oriental Colleges in Burma.

Primary and Secondary schools are divided into departments according to the stages of instruction imparted to the pupils in them. These departments are as follows:—

- (i) *Lower primary*, in which the pupils are taught for Infant, I. and II. Standards, prescribed by the Local Government.
- (ii) *Upper primary*, in which the pupils are taught for Standards III. and IV.
- (iii) *Middle*, in which the pupils are taught for Standards V., VI., and VII.
- (iv) *High*, in which the pupils are taught for Standard VIII. prescribed by the local Government, and for the Entrance Standard of the Calcutta University.

A school which includes a High Department is commonly called a *High School*.

A school which includes a Middle Department, but does not include a High Department is commonly called a *Middle School*, and may be either a *Middle Anglo-Vernacular School* or a *Middle Vernacular School*, according as English is or is not a part of the course therein.

A school which has an Upper Primary Department, but no High or Middle Department, is commonly called an *Upper Primary School*, and a school which has no department higher than Lower Primary is called a *Lower Primary School*.

Institutions which impart special school (as distinguished from collegiate) education are divided into—

- (i) Training or Normal schools;
- (ii) Schools of Art;
- (iii) Schools of Law;
- (iv) Schools of Medicine;
- (v) Schools of Engineering;
- (vi) Survey schools;
- (vii) Industrial schools;
- (viii) Other schools for special instruction.

Private Schools are classified as follows:—

- (1) Advanced schools teaching (a) Arabic or Persian, (b) Sanskrit, (c) any other Oriental classic.
- (2) Elementary schools teaching the vernacular only or mainly.
- (3) European schools not conforming to departmental standards.
- (4) Any other schools not conforming to departmental standards.

Municipal School means a school maintained by a Municipality or Town Committee.

Government School means a school maintained and managed by officers of Government.

THE SELECTION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

The teachers in the public schools of Burma are divided into two main classes, certificated teachers and uncertificated teachers. The certificated teachers are divided into two sub-classes, those who have gone through a course of regular training in a Normal School and those who have not.

In 1905 the proportion of certificated to uncertificated teachers in Anglo-Vernacular schools was as 219 to 100; and of the certificated teachers 43 per cent. had gone through a course of regular training at a Normal School.

In Vernacular schools the proportion of certificated to uncertificated managers in 1905 was as 13 to 100, and of certificated to uncertificated assistant teachers as 41 to 100.

There are five Government Normal Schools for the training of masters in the Province, at Rangoon, Mandalay, Moulmein, Akyab, and Toungoo, with a total average number on the rolls monthly during 1905 of 310 students. In addition to this, normal classes are maintained by the Government at seven institutions under private management. The average number of students on the rolls monthly during 1905 at these seven classes was 254, of which 170 were males and 84 females. The following Rules indicate the work done in the Normal Schools: (1) Each Normal School will submit for the approval of the Director of Public Instruction, on May 1 of each year, its time table of work, showing the number of hours given to the theory and to the practice of Instruction, respectively. (2) Each Superintendent will arrange the details for giving theoretical instruction, which should occupy at least an hour a day for each class. (3) Teachers appointed by Government for Normal work must confine their attention to that work, and must do no other, such as the teaching of the standards. (4) Practical instruction, whereby pupils teach a class before their class-masters and in the presence of the Normal teacher, should be given not less than once a week. (5) A lesson at which all students are present should be given once a week by the Normal Master. (6) At the end of each year's training, when the theoretical test has been undergone, students should be distributed among various competent class-

masters to be trained in class management. (7) Students of all years will be required to undergo a practical examination in teaching. (9) Admission of students, stipendiary and non-stipendiary, will be made only once a year, in the month of April. (10) Continuance in the school is dependent upon good conduct and satisfactory progress, which will be tested by an annual examination, theoretical and practical, of each class, by the Education Department. For a pass, one-third marks in each paper are required, and the pupil must satisfy the examiner in practical work. (11) Students will be provided with lodging and tuition free, and stipend-holders will receive in addition Rs. 7 a month. All students will be required to live in the boarding-house attached to the Normal school, and to conform to the rules and discipline of the same.

The stipends referred to in paragraph (11) are awarded at the discretion of the Director of Public Instruction. Stipend-holders must sign a bond in which they undertake to remain in the Normal Schools for a period not exceeding three years and on quitting the school to teach for two years in some school in the Province. Failure to observe the conditions of the bond involves the liability of refunding the full amount received as stipend.

The Government encourages the employment of pupil-teachers in schools approved by the Department of Education by means

of a system of capitation grants. These grants vary in amount according to the grade of examination which the pupil-teacher passes at the end of each year. The lowest grant is Rs. 34 for the first year to a pupil-teacher in a Vernacular school, and the highest grant is Rs. 120 for the third year to a pupil-teacher in an Anglo-Vernacular school; but in the latter case half the amount of the grant is paid to the teacher or teachers who have had charge of the training of the pupil-teacher. A further inducement to pupil-teachers consists in the selection of twenty Vernacular pupil-teachers each year for appointment as stipendiary students in the Normal schools for a year's training in practical work.

All teachers in Government Schools who have not undergone a full course of instruction in a recognised Normal School are, unless specially exempted by the Director of Public Instruction, called in gradually to undergo a year's training in a Government Normal School. They are required to pass such examinations as the Director of Public Instruction may prescribe. During the period of training they receive half-pay, together with a stipend of Rs. 10 *per mensem*. While under training they are regarded as being still in the service.

RULES FOR TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

The following are the new rules for teachers' certificates, published in June, 1906. They are substituted for the rules contained in the Education Code, 1901.

Certificates of the classes and grades specified below are granted by the Educational Syndicate to students who pass the theoretical tests prescribed in the following paragraph:—A. *Anglo-Vernacular*—(1) Primary Grade Certificate; (2) Secondary Grade Certificate; (3) Higher Grade Certificate; B. *Vernacular*—(1) Primary Grade Certificate; (2) Secondary Grade Certificate.

The following table shows the course of studies prescribed for each class and grade of certificate:—

A.—ANGLO-VERNACULAR.

	Primary Grade Certificate.	Secondary Grade Certificate.	Higher Grade Certificate.
First Year.	1. Questions on the best method of teaching English and Vernacular reading, spelling, grammar and writing in a Primary and Standard V. school.	1. Questions on the best method of teaching English and Vernacular reading, spelling, grammar, composition, translation, and writing in a High school.	1. The principles of Education. 2. History of Education.
Second year.	1. Questions on the best method of teaching the subjects of the first year, arithmetic and geography, in a Primary and Standard VI. school. 2. Questions on the art of oral teaching. 3. Writing notes of lessons.	2. Writing notes of lessons. 1. First year's course and questions on the best method of teaching arithmetic, geography, and drawing in a High school. 2. Questions on the art of oral teaching. 3. Questions on the Principles of the Kindergarten system. 4. Writing notes of lessons.	
Third Year.	1. The subjects of the first and second years. 2. Questions on the form of school registers, the mode of keeping them, and making returns from them. 3. Writing notes of a lesson on a given subject. 4. Questions on the organisation of a Middle school. 5. Questions connected with moral discipline.	1. The subjects of the first and second years. 2. Questions on the form of school registers, the mode of keeping them, making returns from them, and regarding the correct forms of official correspondence. 3. Writing notes of a lesson on a given subject. 4. Questions on the organisation of a High school. 5. Questions connected with the moral discipline as affecting the character and conduct of the pupils of a High school.	

B.—VERNACULAR.

	Primary Grade Certificate.	Secondary Grade Certificate.
First year.	Questions on the best method of teaching reading, spelling, grammar, and writing in a Primary School.	Same as the Anglo-Vernacular course for Primary grade certificate, first year.
Second Year.	1. As in first year, with the addition of arithmetic and geography. 2. Questions on the forms of school registers and the mode of keeping them. 3. Questions on the organisation of a Primary School. 4. Writing notes of lessons.	Same as the Anglo-Vernacular course for Primary grade certificate, second year.

Final Teachers' certificates of the classes and grades specified on page 307 are granted by the Director of Public Instruction.

Final Teachers' certificates are granted to (1) Anglo-Vernacular and Vernacular students who have undergone a full course of instruction in a recognised Normal school and (2) Vernacular students other than pupils of a recognised Normal school.

A Final Teachers' certificate is not granted to any candidate until he has passed the standard of examination specified below, according to the class and grade of certificate applied for, namely,

A.—Anglo-vernacular.

- (1) Primary grade certificate,—Standard VII.
- (2) Secondary or Higher grade certificate,—Entrance examination.

B.—Vernacular.

Secondary grade certificate,—Standard VII., Vernacular.

Final Teachers' certificates are granted to those applicants only who have already obtained from the Educational Syndicate a Preliminary Teachers' certificate of a similar class and grade, and who have also passed a practical test as prescribed in the last paragraph of this section.

The following conditions with regard to age and standards of examination already passed must be fulfilled in the case of students who desire to enter a Normal school, according to the class and grade of Teachers' certificate for which they intend to qualify:—

<p><i>A.—Anglo-vernacular.</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Primary grade certificate. (2) Secondary grade certificate. (3) Higher grade certificate. 	<p><i>Age.</i></p> <p>Not under 12 years.</p> <p>Not under 15 years.</p> <p>—</p>	<p><i>Standard passed.</i></p> <p>5th, Anglo-Vernacular.</p> <p>7th, Anglo-Vernacular.</p> <p>Entrance, F.A., B.A., or M.A.</p>
<p><i>B.—Vernacular.</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Primary grade certificate. (2) Secondary grade certificate. 	<p><i>Age.</i></p> <p>Not under 12 years.</p> <p>Not under 14 years.</p>	<p><i>Standard passed.</i></p> <p>4th, Vernacular.</p> <p>5th, Vernacular.</p>

The full course of instruction in a Normal school is one of three years, with the exception of the course of instruction for a Vernacular Primary grade certificate, which is one of two years.

In the Vernacular Department of all Government Normal schools Pâli and Elementary Science are compulsory subjects. Slöjd is a compulsory subject in all Normal schools which have Slöjd departments.

Pupils of a Normal school who desire to qualify for an Anglo-Vernacular Secondary grade certificate may be exempted from passing by Standard VIII., but they will not be permitted to enter for the Entrance examination until they have passed by the second year's theoretical and practical tests, and by the quarterly or other tests set by the Superintendent of the school to which they belong.

A school or house certificate countersigned by the Director of Public Instruction will be granted by the Principal or the Superintendent of the Normal school, if any, at which the candidate was trained. This certificate will contain a statement as to the candidate's character and abilities, and details as to his qualifications for the work of a teacher.

Should the applicant be of any other nationality than Burmese, an examination in Burmese must also be passed equivalent in the case of a Secondary grade certificate to the Departmental Lower Standard and in the case of a Higher grade certificate to the Departmental Higher Standard.

The following practical test must be passed by every applicant for the grant of a Final Teachers' certificate; namely, two years of continuous teaching, and the receipt of a certificate at the end of each year, signed by an Inspector of Schools, testifying to the applicant's fitness to be a teacher.

GENERAL STATISTICS OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The following table shows the number of educational Institutions in Burma in 1895 and in 1905 and the number of pupils on the rolls on March 31, 1895, and on March 31, 1905. Further details, of sex, race, creed, and average attendance of scholars, are given in Appendix L. By reference to Appendix L it will be seen that, although the schools are classified as Boys' Schools and Girls' Schools, there are many boys attending Girls' Schools and many girls attending Boys' Schools. In the column headed "Number of Pupils" in the following table the figures represent the *total* number on the rolls, male and female, that is to say the total against schools for males includes females attending such schools, and *vice versa*.

GENERAL STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF ALL COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS
IN BURMA FOR THE YEARS 1895 AND 1905.

CLASS OF INSTITUTION.	Number of Institutions.			Number of Pupils on the Rolls March 31.		
	1895.	1905.	Increase per cent.	1895.	1905.	Increase per cent.
<i>Public Institutions:</i>						
Arts Colleges	2	2	—	71*	178†	150
Secondary Schools { for males .	169	386	128	15,562	34,605	122
{ for females .	20	50	150	1,785	8,256	362
Primary Schools { for males .	4,162	4,590	10	109,428	119,664	9
{ for females .	145	445	207	4,916	40,825	730
Training Schools { for males .	2	8	300	105	403	283
{ for females .	3	4	33	83	188	126
Other Special Schools { for males .	26	263	911	651	1,707	162
{ for females .	4	12	200	122	383	213
Total Public Institutions . . .	4,533	5,760	27	132,723	206,209	55
<i>Private Institutions:</i>						
Elementary { for males .	10,481	14,641	39	109,051	159,786	46
{ for females .	70	108	54	2,960	5,128	73
Total Private Institutions . .	10,551	14,749	39	112,011	164,914	47
GRAND TOTAL PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS	15,084	20,509	35	244,734	371,123	51

From the foregoing table it will be seen what remarkable strides have been made in the past ten years in Secondary Education (from 189 schools with 17,347 pupils to 436 schools with 42,861 pupils) and in Female Education (from 242 schools with 9,869 pupils to 619 schools with 54,787 pupils).

The increase in Secondary Schools in the years 1895-1905 represents 130 per cent. for Institutions and 147 per cent. for scholars; and the increase under Female Education represents 155 per cent. for institutions and 455 per cent. for scholars.

The following table shows the classification of the schools of Burma according to the various authorities under which they are managed. Further details, of sex, race, creed, and average attendance, are given in Appendix L. The class "Private Institutions" in the following table includes only such Institutions as are not inspected by the Education Department and do not conform to the Department's standards, and which, therefore, receive no financial aid from Government:—

*Including 3 females.

†Including 7 females.

CLASSIFICATION OF THE SCHOOLS OF BURMA ACCORDING TO
THEIR MANAGEMENT, 1895 AND 1905.

CLASS OF INSTITUTION.	Number of Institutions.		Number of Scholars on the Rolls March 31.	
	1895.	1905.	1895.	1905.
PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.				
<i>Managed by the Government:</i>				
Collegiate Education	1	1	68	151
School Education, General	2	12	1,115	1,980
School Education, Special	33	10	843	521
<i>Managed by Municipal Boards:</i>				
School Education, General	18	17	1,940	3,638
<i>Under Private Management:</i>				
Collegiate Education	1	1	3	27
School Education, General	4,476	5,442	128,636	197,732
School Education, Special	2	277	118	2,160
Total Public Institutions	4,533	5,760	132,723	206,209
PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS.				
<i>Under Private Management:</i>				
Schools not conforming to Departmental Standards	10,551	14,749	112,011	164,914
GRAND TOTAL PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS	15,084	20,509	244,734	371,123

It will be noted that whereas the number of schools managed by the Government and by Municipal Boards has slightly decreased the number under private management has largely increased.

The following table shows the stages of instruction of the scholars in the various Public Institutions of General Instruction in Burma, 1905. Further details, of sex and of divisions into Vernacular and English schools, are given in Appendix L.

The stages of instruction according to the standards prescribed by the Government of Burma are as follows: *Lower Primary*, including Infant and I. and II. Standards; *Upper Primary*, including Standards III. and IV.; *Middle*, including Standards V., VI., and VII.; and *High*, including Standard VIII. prescribed by the Local Government and the Entrance Standard of the Calcutta University (sometimes referred to as Standard IX.).

CLASSIFICATION OF THE SCHOLARS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR
GENERAL INSTRUCTION IN BURMA ACCORDING TO THE STAGES
OF INSTRUCTION, 1905.

CLASS OF SCHOOL.	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars on the Rolls March 31, 1905.			High Stage.	Middle Stage.	Upper Primary Stage.	Lower Primary Stage.
		Boys.	Girls.	Total.				
<i>Secondary Schools:</i>								
For Boys { Government	7	1,698	19	1,717	289	495	432	501
{ Municipal .	16	3,566	30	3,596	127	902	1,009	1,558
{ Aided . . .	363	27,802	5,230	33,032	564	5,098	8,230	19,140
Total	386	33,066	5,279	38,345	980	6,495	9,671	21,199
For Girls { Government	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
{ Municipal .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
{ Aided . . .	50	1,539	2,977	4,516	84	660	1,014	2,758
Total	50	1,539	2,977	4,516	84	660	1,014	2,758
Total Secondary Schools,	436	34,605	8,256	42,861	1,064	7,155	10,685	23,957
<i>Primary Schools:</i>								
For Boys { Government	4	229	—	229	—	—	65	164
{ Municipal .	1	42	—	42	—	—	23	19
{ Aided . . .	4,585	113,924	31,165	145,089	—	—	13,422	131,667
Total	4,590	114,195	31,165	145,360	—	—	13,510	131,850
For Girls { Government	1	—	34	34	—	—	—	34
{ Municipal .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
{ Aided . . .	444	5,469	9,626	15,095	—	—	1,166	13,929
Total	445	5,469	9,660	15,129	—	—	1,166	13,963
Total Primary Schools .	5,035	119,664	40,825	160,489	—	—	14,676	145,813
GRAND TOTAL SECOND- ARY AND PRIMARY SCHOOLS	5,471	154,269	49,081	203,350	1,064	7,155	25,361	169,770

EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The following table shows the total expenditure on Public Instruction in Burma in the years 1895 and 1905. The classification in this table is according to the various objects for which the expenditure was incurred. Further details—showing the expenditure as divided under each class of schools—are given in Appendix L. The sums of money given in this table are “Totals”; *i.e.*, lump sums expended

on the object indicated, irrespective of the source from which the money was derived. Details of the origin of the money expended on Public Instruction are summarised on page 314 and are given in full in Appendix L.

EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN BURMA, 1895 AND 1905, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE OBJECT OF THE OUTLAY.

Expenditure on	1895. (Rupees.)	1905. (Rupees.)	Remarks.
Arts Colleges	53,597	68,287	* This sum is exclusive of the expenditure on Survey Schools, which falls on the Department of Land Records and Agriculture.
Secondary Schools	502,273	1,012,651	
Primary Schools	212,966	517,349	
Training Colleges for Teachers, Law Schools	31,738	85,447	
Engineering and Surveying Schools	4,800	5,512	
Other Schools of Special Instruction	24,691	16,446*	
Buildings	28,932	44,006	
Furniture and Apparatus	95,681	249,181	
Direction	3,750†	10,582†	
Inspection	33,507	53,687	
Scholarships	131,116	208,481	† This sum represents only special grants under this head.
Miscellaneous	18,751	32,163	
	65,678	374,564	
Total	1,207,480	2,678,356	

From the foregoing table it is seen that the expenditure on Public Instruction in Burma has more than doubled during the past decade.

In the following table the expenditure on Public Instruction in Burma is analysed according to the origin of the funds expended. It is to be noted that in the columns headed "Provincial Revenues" there is included a sum of Rs. 275,000 (distributed under the various objects of expenditure), from a special Grant of Rs. 400,000 from the Government of India, to be continued annually. A further Imperial Grant of Rs. 200,000 annually will be made, commencing with 1906. These grants were made in accordance with the recommendations of the Simla Educational Conference of 1901, the former grant being for the general improvement of education in the Province, the latter to be spent entirely on the extension of Vernacular Primary Education. Further details, showing the expenditure as divided under each class of schools—are given in Appendix L.

EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN BURMA, 1905, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE ORIGIN OF THE FUNDS EXPENDED.

OBJECT OF EXPENDITURE.	From Provincial Revenues.	From District Funds.	From Municipal Funds.	From Fees.	From Private Sources.	Total.
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
Arts Colleges	39,483	—	—	15,730	13,074	68,287
Secondary Schools	242,775	37,758	191,412	432,088	108,618	1,012,651
Primary Schools	206,198	194,121	69,014	35,941	12,075	517,349
Training Colleges for Teachers . .	80,492	—	—	—	4,955	85,447
Law Schools	1,586	—	—	3,926	—	5,512
Engineering and Surveying Schools, Other Schools of Special Instruction,	14,346	—	—	1,908	192	16,446
Buildings	31,266	—	2,410	5,995	4,335	44,006
Furniture and Apparatus	178,133	—	35,700	—	35,348	249,181
Direction	2,683	2,405	2,118	—	3,376	10,582
Inspection	53,687	—	—	—	—	53,687
Scholarships	207,196	—	1,285	—	—	208,481
Miscellaneous	31,801	—	—	—	562	32,163
	59,027	5,830	10,797	228,897	70,013	374,564
Grand Total	1,148,473	240,114	312,736	724,485	252,548	2,678,356

GOVERNMENT AND OTHER SCHOLARSHIPS.

For the purpose of the general encouragement of Education the Government provides from Provincial funds a number of scholarships, which are awarded under conditions laid down in the *Education Code*. The following is a list of these scholarships:—

- (a) Five *senior University scholarships*, tenable for two years, by students who have passed the F.A. and read in a college for the B.A.;
- (b) Twenty *junior University scholarships*, tenable for two years in a college, by students who have passed the Entrance and read for the F.A.;
- (c) Thirty-eight *middle English scholarships*, tenable for two years in a high school by those students who have gained the first 38 places in the Middle English scholarship examination;
Primary scholarships have been abolished.
- (d) Three *medical scholarships*, tenable for five years at the Medical College, Calcutta, two of which are open to candidates of Burmese and Indo-Burmese origin and one to Europeans and Eurasians whose parents are domiciled in Burma. Under "Burmese," Karens and Talaings are included;
- (e) Five *Hospital Assistant scholarships*, tenable for a pre-collegiate course of one year in Burma and three years

in the Madras Medical College, open to candidates of Burmese and Karen origin, of whole or half blood, and Burmese-speaking sons of Hospital Assistants who have served over ten years in Burma. The initial qualification is the Seventh Anglo-Vernacular Standard;

- (f) Three *female medical* scholarships, tenable for four years in the Medical College, Calcutta, by female candidates of any nationality, who are permanently domiciled in Burma, and who have passed the Entrance examination and have a knowledge of Burmese equivalent to the Seventh Standard;
- (g) Two *Lower Subordinate* scholarships, tenable for two years in the Government School of Engineering, Insein, by a candidate of Burman or Indo-Burman origin who has passed the Seventh Standard;
- (h) One *Upper Subordinate* scholarship, tenable for two years in the Government School of Engineering, Insein, by a candidate of Burman or Indo-Burman origin who has passed the Entrance;
- (i) Two *Maung Ohn Ghine* scholarships, tenable under certain specified conditions detailed in the Code, for two years each, in the Upper and Lower Subordinate classes respectively, of the Government School of Engineering, Insein.

In addition to the foregoing the Educational Syndicate awards to women from funds in its keeping three scholarships a year, known as the *St. Barbe* scholarships, tenable for one year in the Dufferin Hospital, Rangoon. They also award two scholarships, known as the *Bigandet* scholarships, tenable in the Calcutta Medical College for five years, to candidates, male or female, who are domiciled in Burma, have a fluent knowledge of Burmese, and have passed the F.A. examination, if male, and the Entrance, if female.

There is also a scholarship known as the *Gilbert* scholarship, which is tenable on the technical side of the Rangoon College by a selected student who has passed the Anglo-Vernacular Seventh Standard.

THE GRANT-IN-AID SYSTEM.

Of the total expenditure of Rs. 2,678,356 on Public Instruction in Burma in the year 1905, Rs. 1,379,708, or nearly 52 per cent., was paid out in the form of grants-in-aid to schools under private management. If we deduct from the total expenditure the

sum paid for Direction of the Education Department, Inspection of the Schools by Departmental officials, the provision of Scholarships, and miscellaneous expenditure, we get a total net direct expenditure on the schools of Rs. 2,009,461. Of this sum the amount paid out in the form of grants-in-aid represented 68.8 per cent.

As has been stated above, the schools of Burma, in so far as they are public institutions conforming to Departmental standards, fall into three great classes,—those managed by the Government, those managed by District or Municipal Boards, and those under private management. Schools of the first two classes are directly supported from public revenues, fees, and endowments, and are not eligible for grants-in-aid. All schools under private management are eligible for grants-in-aid either under the rules applicable to Anglo-Vernacular schools or under those applicable to Indigenous schools.

The following are the grant-in-aid rules for Anglo-Vernacular schools, as corrected to January 1, 1906:—

GRANT-IN-AID RULES

FOR ANGLO-VERNACULAR SCHOOLS.*

A.—GRANTS-IN-AID OF SCHOOLS FOR GENERAL EDUCATION.

(1) Grants-in-aid of schools and other educational institutions, including technical schools, will be made from public funds with the special object of

Object of Rules. extending and improving the secular education of the people, and will be given impartially to all schools which impart a sound secular education, subject to the conditions hereinafter specified, and with due consideration for the requirements of each locality. The Grant-in-Aid Fund is administered under the control of the Department of Public Instruction and is subject to budget limits.

(2) It will be essential to the consideration of any application for aid that the school on behalf of which the application is made shall be under the

Superintendence of Schools. management of one or more persons who, in the capacity of proprietors, trustees, managers, or members of committee, will be prepared to undertake the general superintendence of the school and to be answerable for its permanence for some given time.

(3) The trustees or members will also be responsible to Government for the due application of the school funds in accordance with the conditions of the grant.

* These rules are revised every five years. Except in so far as these rules relate to the payment of grants, they apply to all Government and Municipal schools as well as to schools under private management.

(4) The Department must be satisfied—

- (i) that the school premises are healthy, properly drained and ventilated, and contain sufficient accommodation for the scholars in attendance;
- (ii) that the principal teacher is not allowed to undertake duties not connected with the school, which occupy any part whatever of the school hours, or of the time appointed for special instruction of pupil-teachers,
- (iii) that in the case of Secondary Schools, the condition required by the Calcutta University for recognition are fulfilled;
- (iv) that the teachers have undergone a preliminary test and satisfied the Department that their knowledge of English, colloquial and written, is such as to fit them for employment in an Anglo-Ver-nacular School.

(5) Every change in the management and superintendence of the school must be duly notified to the Director of Public Instruction.

The conditions under which a school is registered may not be altered without the sanction of the Director of Public Instruction.

(6) Every school to which aid is given, shall, together with all its accounts, books, and records, be at all times open to inspection and examination by **Inspection.** any officer appointed for the purpose, the person or persons responsible for its management being bound to furnish all such returns then as may from time to time be required by that officer.

(7) Inspecting officers will not interfere with the actual management of schools, but will be required to see that the conditions on which the grants are given are fulfilled, and that the conditions of registration are observed.

(8) At the time of registration the managers will be informed in what month of each year to look for the annual inspection. Notice of the day of inspection will be given beforehand.

(9) An Inspector of Schools may visit a registered school at any other time without notice.

(10) Grants are given to those schools only (excepting normal schools for training teachers and technical schools) at which fees are levied from **Fees.** the scholars at rates approved in each case by the Director of Public Instruction.* The managers of any aided school shall be at liberty to remit or reduce fees leviable from orphans or from children of poor parents, provided that the number of such remissions does not, except with the special sanction of the Director of Public Instruction, exceed 10 per cent. of the average daily attendance.

The number and amount of remissions under this rule must be shown in the annual returns submitted to the Department.

In the case of Karen schools, contributions by the Karen community may, with the sanction of the local authority, subject to the control as above of the Director of Public Instruction, be accepted in lieu of fees; and in the

* The minimum fee to be levied in all schools aided under these rules is as follows: Rs. 1 a month for Standards Infant, I. and II.; Rs. 2 a month for Standards III. and IV.; Rs. 3 a month for Standards V., VI., and VII.; and Rs. 4 a month for Standards VIII. and IX.

case of girls' schools the said local authority may, on sufficient cause, relax the condition of fee payments.

(11) A "school-meeting" means a registered meeting of the school for secular instruction during not less than two hours. Every aided school

School-meetings. must have not less than 400 school-meetings in the year, unless otherwise authorised by the Director of Public Instruction.

(12) In every aided school the following records in prescribed form must be regularly maintained, namely:—

- Records.**
- (i) Admission and progress register.
 - (ii) Attendance and fee register.
 - (iii) Visitors' book.
 - (iv) Account register.
 - (v) Scholarship acquittance roll. The requisite forms will be supplied free of cost on application to the Inspector of Schools.

(13) School-managers who may be desirous of receiving aid from public funds on account of any school which has not been previously registered

Registration of Schools. in the office of the Director of Public Instruction must apply for registration, through the Inspector of Schools, not less than one full year before the first public examination that will be held in it.

(14) All applications for registration must be made on an official form, copies of which can be obtained from the Director of Public Instruction.

(15) Should an application for registration in any case be refused by the Director of Public Instruction, the reason for refusal will be communicated to the person who applied for registration. In disposing of such applications the Department will consider whether the teaching staff is certificated and adequate; whether the school supplies a want of the locality; how far its own resources, inclusive and exclusive of fees, suffice to meet its necessary expenditure; whether the fees charged are adequate; and whether the general rules of the school for the guidance of masters and pupils are satisfactory.

(16) The grants-in-aid obtainable are the following: (i) ordinary grants, calculated on the difference between the income and expenditure of a school;

Nature of Aid obtainable. (ii) boarding grants, for each pupil supplied with board and lodging on the school premises; (iii & vii) results-grants for technical subjects; (iv) special grants to supplement private expenditure on buildings and on furniture; (v) salary-grants to certificated teachers; (vi) fixed grants to schools, whose permanent character is established, tenable for five years at a time, subject to progress, and to the observance of the rules laid down by the Department; (viii) grants to Normal schools.

(17) In no case will the total of all grants to a school exceed in amount the sum contributed from private sources towards the direct expenditure of

Limitation of Grants. the school in the previous year, the amount of private expenditure being ascertained by the Director of Public Instruction.

(18) Schools in which less than one-third of those on the average daily attendance-roll succeed in passing by the respective standards will be considered inefficient, and will be liable to be struck off the Grant-in-Aid Register. Efficient schools will be classed as "Excellent" or "Good," according to the work done during the year, the tone and discipline, and the efficiency of supervision.

(19) Subject to the proviso in paragraph (17), the maximum grant that a school may draw shall be the sum required to meet that part of the current expenditure, other than that for boarding establishments, which will not be covered by the receipt of fees, endowments, grants from missionary bodies and miscellaneous sources. No grant of any kind will be paid unless the school has been declared efficient.

(20) The current expenditure shall be taken to be the cost of the school staff, together with an addition not exceeding 25 per cent. of the above, for supervision and sundry charges. In schools in which the staff receives no fixed salaries, the cost of it shall be calculated with reference to local circumstances and the qualification of the teachers. As regards receipts, fees should be charged, and the number of free pupils be strictly regulated, with reference to the character of the school and the class of the community for which the school is intended.

The salaries of none but fully certificated teachers, or of those specially and individually exempted by the Director of Public Instruction, will be allowed to count under expenditure; nor will extra teachers for Latin, French, Urdu, Telugu, Tamil, etc., be included, unless the number of pupils who take up these languages is sufficiently large to justify the inclusion of the salaries paid.

I. AND II.

ORDINARY AND BOARDING GRANTS.

(21) Ordinary grants will be paid and calculated on the difference between the income and expenditure of a school. The income will be calculated, to include—(a) total of fees that ought to have been received during the year, the number of pupils in each standard being multiplied by the minimum fee for that standard laid down by the Government, and by 12, *minus* the fees of free pupils, the maximum allowed by the Government not being exceeded; (b) half salaries paid during the year; (c) subscriptions; (d) grants from missions for the day school only.

The expenditure will be the cost of the staff during the year, calculated as under paragraph (20) above; and 25 per cent. of this cost, for "superintendence and sundry charges."

(22) For each pupil supplied with board and lodging on the school premises, a boarding grant of Rs. 3 a year will be given.

III.

RESULTS-GRANTS.

Results-grants will be paid for passing in the following *technical* subjects:—

Subject.	STANDARDS.						
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.
	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.
Kindergarten	2 0	4 0	—	—	—	—	—
Slöjd	2 0	4 0	6 0	8 0	10 0	12 0	14 0
Drawing (<i>free-hand and geometrical</i>)	1 0	1 8	2 0	2 8	3 0	3 8	4 0
Drill and gymnastics (<i>for boys</i>)	0 8	0 8	0 8	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0
Calisthenics (<i>for girls</i>)	0 8	0 8	0 8	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0
Boot and shoe making	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Printing	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Lithography	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Book-binding	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Electroplating	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Watch-making	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Tinsmith's work	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Blacksmith's work	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Carpentry	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Tailoring	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Cane and bamboo work	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Weaving	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Lace-making (<i>for girls only</i>)	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Book-keeping, commercial arithmetic, and commercial correspondence	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Mechanical engineering and drawing	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Phonography	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Moulding	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0
Music (<i>vocal</i>)*	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0
Music (<i>theory of</i>)	—	—	0 12	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0
Cookery and domestic economy	—	—	—	3 0	5 0	7 0	9 0

(23) In the case of the University examinations, no grant can be claimed unless the pupil has regularly attended the school from which he is presented for at least one year before the examination.

(24) Extra grants will be payable for European pupils, for girls, and for pupils of specified backward races, in such localities as the local Government may from time to time determine.

Enhanced Rates for Certain Pupils.

These enhanced rates do not apply to the subjects under the Technical course.

(25) For purposes of calculations under (24) the following rates are allowed:—

* This grant is also paid for the Infant Standard.

A.—COMPULSORY.

Standard.	Amount.	Standard.	Amount.
	<i>Rs.</i>		<i>Rs.</i>
<i>Lower Primary</i> { Infant	3	<i>High</i> { VIII or Entrance—	20
{ I	5		(a) Third division
{ II	6		(b) Second division
<i>Upper Primary</i> { III	7		(c) First division
{ IV	9		50
<i>Middle</i> { V	10	<i>College</i> { F.A. (a) Third division	60
	12		(b) Second division
	14		(c) First division
			100
			B.A. (a) Second division
			(b) First division
			(c) Honours
			200

B.—OPTIONAL.

Subject.	LOWER PRIMARY STANDARDS.		UPPER PRIMARY STANDARDS.		MIDDLE STANDARDS.		
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.
	<i>Rs. A.</i>	<i>Rs. A.</i>	<i>Rs. A.</i>	<i>Rs. A.</i>	<i>Rs. A.</i>	<i>Rs. A.</i>	<i>Rs. A.</i>
Burmese history	—	—	—	—	1 0	1 0	1 0
Indian history	—	—	—	—	1 0	1 0	1 0
English history	—	—	—	—	1 0	1 0	1 0
Object lessons and Elementary science	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 8	1 0	1 0	1 0
Drawing (<i>free-hand and geometrical</i>)	0 8	0 8	0 8	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0
Hygiene and physiology (<i>for boys only</i>)	—	0 8	0 8	0 8	1 0	1 0	1 0
Hygiene and domestic economy (<i>for girls only</i>)							
Needle-work (<i>for girls only</i>) . .	0 4	0 6	0 8	0 10	0 12	1 0	2 0

(26) Bills for grants must be submitted to the Director of Public Instruction for countersignature half-yearly before the 1st May and the 1st November. The bills will be payable on or after the 1st June and the 1st December.

(27) If through misadventure, for which the manager is found by the Director of Public Instruction not to blame, the grant by results to any school falls greatly below the average of previous grants to the same school, a sum not exceeding two-thirds of the grant of the previous year may, with the sanction of the Government, be paid to the manager instead of the grant calculated under these rules.

IV.

SPECIAL GRANTS.

(28) Special grants may, when funds permit, be given towards the cost of the erection, purchase, or enlargement of school-buildings, and, in exceptional cases, towards the cost of furnishing school-houses providing maps and other school apparatus, on the following conditions:—

(a) that satisfactory evidence shall be adduced of the necessity for the erection, purchase, or enlargement in aid of which the grant is sought; (b) that in each case the managers of the schools shall contribute an equivalent to the amount of the grant; (c) that in the case of buildings, the application (which shall be submitted before the commencement of the undertaking) shall be accompanied by a plan and estimate of the cost of the building proposed to be erected or purchased, or of the additions to any existing building. The plan and estimate must be previously approved by an Executive Engineer, and be accompanied by a report from the Inspector of Schools; (d) that previous to the disbursement of the grant it shall be certified by the District Engineer, or other responsible officer who may have been deputed to examine the building, that the work has been proceeded with as provided for in the plan and estimate approved by the Director of Public Instruction; also that before disbursement the managers of the school shall declare that they have funds on hand sufficient, when supplemented by the grant, to clear off all the debts incurred in the execution of the work; (e) that in the event of any building, towards the erection, purchase, or enlargement of which a grant may have been made by Government, being, without the consent of the Director of Public Instruction, diverted prior to the lapse of 20 years from the date of the issue of the grant to other than educational purposes, the managers at the time of the diversion shall refund to Government such portion of the grant as shall be determined by arbitrators, who, in making their award, shall take into consideration the length of time the building has been used as a school-house and its consequent deterioration; but in the event of such managers failing to make such refund, then they shall sell the building to Government at a valuation to be determined by arbitrators, who, in making their award, shall deduct from the price such portion of the grant as may seem equitable, regard being had to the length of time the building has been used as a school-house and its consequent deterioration; (f) that the school for which a building grant is given shall be duly registered and be maintained year by year in an efficient state. [For details as to the registration of schools consult p. 318 *ante*.]

(29) Building-grants not exceeding Rs. 1,000 may be sanctioned by the Director of Public Instruction.

(30) Grants are not given to pay off debts for building, or in consideration of former expenditure for building, or for the maintenance of buildings.

V.—SALARY-GRANTS TO CERTIFICATED TEACHERS.

(31) (a) The employment of a certificated teacher will enable a school to obtain a salary-grant equal to the salary paid by the school, subject to a maximum limit of Rs. 150 a month. The half salary paid by the school must be in cash; board and lodging, &c., are not accepted as the equivalent.

(b) The teacher for whom the salary-grant is claimed must be approved by the Director of Public Instruction and must be fully qualified, *i.e.*, he must have passed the necessary Standard or University examination, the required Teacher's test and the Practical test by the Inspector of Schools.

(c) The scale of half salaries will be *per mensem*—

(i) *Primary Schools.*

Two of Rs. 25 (if there is an Infant standard).

One of Rs. 25 to Rs. 30	} in three years for approved work.
One of Rs. 30 to Rs. 40	
One of Rs. 40 to Rs. 50	

(ii) *Additional for Middle Schools.*

One of Rs. 50 to Rs. 60	} in three years for approved work.
One of Rs. 60 to Rs. 70	
One of Rs. 70 to Rs. 80	

(iii) *Additional for High Schools.*

One of Rs. 80 to Rs. 90	} in three years for approved work.
One of Rs. 100 to Rs. 150	

(d) Extra Teachers with half salaries according to the scale set out in clause (c) will, at the discretion of the Director of Public Instruction, Burma, be provided for larger classes.

(e) Allowances of Rs. 20 and Rs. 10 will be granted to the Head Masters of Middle and Primary Schools, respectively, in addition to the ordinary half salary grants on condition that the school authorities give like amounts.

VI.—FIXED GRANTS.

(32) (a) The selection of schools for aid under this section will be made by the Director of Public Instruction.

(b) The progress of these schools will be judged by the Director of Public Instruction on the results of the Provincial and University examinations.

(c) The grant will be calculated in the first instance on the average payable during the previous three years.

(d) On renewal, the grant may be increased or diminished, according

to the condition of the school, as judged by the results of the Provincial and University examinations, the average attendance of pupils, and the amount of contributions toward the direct expenditure of the school from private sources.

(e) Bills for these grants will be submitted to the Director of Public Instruction in duplicate monthly.

VII.—GRANTS-IN-AID FOR TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

(33) Grants-in-aid to technical schools, or technical departments of schools, are to be made under the following heads, namely,—(a) salary-grants for technical teachers; (b) special grants for tools and apparatus, buildings, &c.; (c) results-grants for the success of pupils on examination; (d) technical scholarships. Grants-in-aid under heads (a), (b), and (d) will in all cases be limited by the extent of the budget provision for the year.

(34) The following are the arts and industries, instruction in which will qualify a school for aid under this chapter, namely: book-binding, boot and shoe making, cane and bamboo work, carpentry, mechanical engineering and drawing, electroplating, lithography, printing, moulding, kindergarten and slöjd, tailoring, tinsmith's work, watch-making, lace-making, weaving, blacksmith's work, drill and gymnastics (*for boys*), and calisthenics (*for girls*); book-keeping, commercial correspondence, and commercial arithmetic; music (*vocal*), music (*theory of*), drawing (*free-hand and geometrical*), phonography, cookery and domestic economy.

Other industries, arts, or sciences may at any time be added to this list.

(35) In any public school above the lower primary grade, the employment of a qualified teacher in any of the recognised industries will render the school eligible for a salary-grant for such teacher, equal to the salary paid by the school, subject to a maximum limit of Rs. 50 *per mensem*.

Salary-grants for Teachers. (36) The teacher for whom a salary-grant is claimed must be approved by the Director of Public Instruction.

(37) Grants under these rules will be payable only where suitable provision exists for the teaching of the art or industry concerned.

(38) Special grants for tools and for buildings may be given to technical schools or departments, not exceeding the private expenditure on the same object, provided there is a minimum attendance of ten pupils in the technical department.

(39) Results-grants to technical schools or departments will be payable on the results of annual examinations to be conducted by the Department in accordance with the prescribed standards. The results-grants are as follows, except in the case of Gymnastics, Calisthenics, Music, Drawing, Kindergarten and Slöjd, payments for which are provided in Rule (22) III.:—

	Rs.
For the 4th standard	3 for each pupil.
For the 5th standard	5 for each pupil.
For the 6th standard	7 for each pupil.
For the 7th standard	9 for each pupil.

(40) For passing the seventh standard in any art or industry, a certificate will be issued by the Director of Public Instruction. Pupils of Government technical schools will be eligible to compete for this certificate.

VIII.—GRANTS-IN-AID TO NORMAL SCHOOLS.

(41) A normal school is a separate school or class for training teachers who intend to become certificated teachers in primary, middle, or high schools. It must include a practising school in which the students shall practise the art of teaching. At the time of inspection, the managers will be expected to satisfy the Department that a reasonable effort has been made to procure employment as teachers for the students who have passed the final course.

(42) A normal school will be registered at the discretion of the Director of Public Instruction, after due consideration of the educational wants of the locality in which it is established.

(43) No normal school will be registered unless the Department is satisfied with its premises, management, supply of necessary apparatus, and the competency of the staff, and unless it contains at least 15 students, male or female, studying regularly a fixed course which has been approved by the Department, and includes practical training in teaching and school management.

(44) The amount of the grant-in-aid to a normal school, and the conditions on which it shall be paid, will be determined in each case by agreement between the managers and the Department.

[NOTE.—In the *Burma Gazette* of June 2, 1906, new rules are published in regard to grants-in-aid to Normal schools. The rules are as follows: For every final teacher's certificate gained by a pupil in an aided Normal school the following grants are made to the school; namely, Primary grade certificate Rs. 20, Secondary grade certificate Rs. 30, Higher grade certificate Rs. 50. For every preliminary teacher's certificate gained by a pupil in an aided Normal school the following grants are made to the teacher of the class concerned; namely, Primary grade certificate Rs. 10, Secondary grade certificate Rs. 20, Higher grade certificate Rs. 30.]

DISCIPLINE AND MORAL TRAINING.

(45) The Department must be satisfied that managers of schools to which aid is given pay strict attention to the discipline and moral training of the pupils. Inspectors of Schools will at their inspection and examination of schools report on the behaviour of the pupils, on the cleanliness of person

and dress in both teachers and pupils, on the ability of the teachers to handle their classes well, and on the general discipline, method, and order maintained.

(46) Managers will be required to attend to matters of discipline and moral training as much as possible on the lines indicated below:—

- (a) Gymnastics and games should be recognised as part of the regular course of school training and efforts should be made to promote inter-school sports and games, and to induce the teachers to join the boys in their games.
- (b) Punishments for breaches for discipline should be arranged so as to fall on the offender. With this aim the imposition of tasks, deprivation of privilege, a judicious use of the rod, and, finally, expulsion in cases of aggravated and persistent misconduct should be resorted to, and each school should have some definite rules laid down for the purpose.
- (c) Good-conduct registers should be kept, extracts from which should be sent to parents and guardians each quarter, and prizes for good conduct should be awarded at the end of each year. The register should have separate portions or pages for each pupil, in which will be entered daily by the teacher of the pupil such details of his assiduity and general conduct as it may be desirable to enter to give an idea of the pupil's general character and proficiency, and at the end of the quarter it should be noted briefly what has been the pupil's conduct under each of the adopted headings.

When a pupil leaves the school he is to be allowed to take extracts with him from the register, and extracts are to be furnished each quarter to his parents or guardians.

- (d) Hostels and boarding-houses under careful supervision and discipline should be established, where possible, for the accommodation of pupils whose families are not resident in the place where they are being educated.
- (e) Selected boys from the higher classes should be appointed monitors for the purpose of maintaining discipline during and, as far as possible, out of school hours.
- (f) The Inter-school Rules must be strictly observed.
- (g) Teaching having a direct bearing upon personal conduct should be adopted.

(47) For the sake of securing better discipline and greater uniformity of progress in the various classes it is desirable that schools should not admit pupils at all times of the year, but only at a stated period.

(48) Strict punctuality should be required from both teachers and scholars. A special attendance register for the former should be kept in every school.

(49) Masters by precept, and especially by example, should do their utmost to lead their pupils to be clean and neat in person and habit, respectful, orderly, and quiet in behaviour, honest and truthful under all circumstances.

GRANTS-IN-AID

TO INDIGENOUS SCHOOLS.

The following is an abstract of the grant-in-aid rules for Indigenous Schools as in force on January 1, 1906. The rules are to be found in full in Chapter V. of the *Education Code, Burma*.

Every school in which the prescribed indigenous school course is taught, and which is declared open to inspection by Government officers, will be regularly examined by the Deputy Inspector of Schools of the District, and will be eligible for aid under the rules.

A school manager can apply at any time to the Deputy Inspector of Schools to have the school brought on the inspection list, provided he fulfils the following conditions:—

(a) that the school has a working session of at least four months;

(b) that at least four of the pupils are able to read and write their vernacular, as judged by Standard II.;

(c) that the school passes pupils within a year of registration by recognised standards, in order to be retained on the list.

Indigenous schools receive aid in the form of (a) results-grants; (b) grants for pupil-teachers; (c) special grants for buildings, furniture, books, maps, etc.; (d) salary-grants.

For the purpose of estimating the amount of results-grants to be paid, examinations are held each year in each registered school, and the amount of the grant is adjusted to the standard passed by each pupil.

There are eleven standards of examination, graded as follows, Infant Standard A, Infant Standard B, and Standards I. to IX. The examination is made in three classes of subjects, Compulsory, Technical, and Optional.

In order to pass in each standard one-third of the marks required must be obtained, except in the vernaculars, in which one-half the assigned marks must be obtained. In Optional and Technical subjects one-third of the total marks are required for a pass. The following table shows the amount of grant obtainable for passes under each standard.

**AMOUNT OF RESULTS-GRANTS TO BE PAID FOR EACH PUPIL
PASSING BY EACH STANDARD OF EXAMINATION IN INDIGENOUS
SCHOOLS, BURMA.**

STANDARD.	COMPULSORY SUBJECTS.	OPTIONAL SUBJECTS.			TECHNICAL SUBJECTS.	
		Manual Training for Boys, Needle- work for Girls.	Karen Language.	Pali Language.	Calisthenics for Girls, Drill and Gymnastics for Boys.	Drawing.
For Standards Infant A to VII.	Kindergarten, Object Lessons, A Vernacular, Arithmetic, Elementary Science, Geography					
Additional for Standards VIII. & IX.	Euclid, Algebra, History of Burma.					
	Rupees.	R. A.	R. A.	R. A.	R. A.	R. A.
Infant A	4	—	—	—	8	8
Infant B	4	—	—	—	8	8
I. { Boys	6	1 0	8	—	8	1 0
Girls	8	1 0	8	—	8	1 0
II. { Boys	8	1 8	10	1 0	8	1 8
Girls	9	1 8	10	1 0	8	1 8
III. { Boys	9	2 0	12	1 8	8	2 0
Girls	10	2 0	12	1 8	8	2 0
IV. { Boys	10	2 8	1 0	2 0	1 0	2 8
Girls	11	2 8	1 0	2 0	1 0	2 8
V. { Boys	12	3 0	1 8	2 8	1 0	3 0
Girls	13	3 0	1 8	2 8	1 0	3 0
VI. { Boys	14	3 8	2 0	3 0	1 0	3 8
Girls	15	3 8	2 0	3 0	1 0	3 8
VII. { Boys	16	4 0	2 8	3 8	1 0	4 0
Girls	17	4 0	2 8	3 8	1 0	4 0
VIII. { Boys	18	—	—	—	—	—
Girls	20	—	—	—	—	—
IX. { Boys	20	—	—	—	—	—
Girls	22	—	—	—	—	—

Certificated women teachers in Vernacular Girls' Schools to which girls only are admitted receive the following salary-grants: for women teachers with full Secondary Grade Vernacular Certificate, Rs. 15 *per mensem*; for women teachers with a full Primary Grade Vernacular Certificate, Rs. 10 *per mensem*. These grants are payable as long as the school is declared to be efficient. When opening a girls' school, the manager is entitled to a grant of Rs. 25 for text-books and of Rs. 50 for furniture and equipment.

In order to assist in the spread of primary education and for the purpose of helping managers who wish to qualify for the registration of their schools and thus to benefit under the grant-in-aid rules for Indigenous schools, the Government supports a number of itinerant teachers, whose duties, pay, etc. are laid down in the following rules:—

I. It is the duty of itinerant teachers to teach, and not to examine.

II. Itinerant teachers are appointed to assist the Deputy Inspectors of Schools in finding out new schools, teaching the managers of them, bringing them under registration, and thus spreading primary education in the districts.

III. Itinerant teachers are under the orders of the Deputy Inspectors of Schools, who will arrange the details of their tours and examine their diaries before submitting them to the Inspector of Schools.

IV. Itinerant teachers are to teach managers, and not pupils, except pupil-teachers. They will also give model lessons. They are not responsible for the teaching of a school, nor for its advance: this rests with the managers themselves and with the Deputy Inspectors of Schools. They should not visit well-established schools or those that have a staff of pupil-teachers, except to occasionally help the managers in the work of instructing the pupil-teachers. Such schools must work independently of itinerant teachers, and managers should be made to feel their own responsibility for the progress of the schools under them.

V. Itinerant teachers are under no circumstances to force their services on managers who do not want them.

VI. Itinerant teachers should be provided with a copy of the Code and the Rules for the guidance of Vernacular Schools, in Burmese, and, wherever they go, they should explain the Government system of work fully to managers, parents, and *luggis*.

VII. The following scale of pay, and promotion after three years' approved service in a grade, is laid down:—

	Salary per ensem.	Fixed Travelling Allowance per mensem.	
Grade V, Rs. 20 + Rs. 10	{	{	For holders of Secondary grade Vernacular certificates.
Grade IV, Rs. 30 + Rs. 10			
Grade III, Rs. 40 + Rs. 10			For those who have passed Standard VIII Vernacular in addition to the Secondary grade.
Grade II, Rs. 50 + Rs. 10			
Grade I, Rs. 60 + Rs. 10			For those who have passed Standard IX in addition to the Secondary grade.

VIII. Itinerant teachers should keep in touch with Township Officers and *luggis*, and seek their help and co-operation, to induce villagers, *without any compulsion whatever*, to interest themselves in education.

Pupil-teachers are appointed to Indigenous schools by the Director of Public Instruction, on the nomination of an Inspector of Schools. A candidate for a pupil-teachership must have passed Standard IV., and during the period of his employment, which is for three years, he must pass various prescribed examinations. During the first year a pupil-teacher receives a grant of Rs. 2 *per mensem*, during the second year Rs. 4, during the third year Rs. 6; and, on passing his final examination, he is paid a bonus of Rs. 10.

Special grants for buildings, furniture, books, maps, etc., may be made to indigenous schools under the following rules: (a) Contributions are made by the Government or by Municipal or Town Committees for school buildings, furniture, etc., either in the form of

Special Grants for Buildings, Furniture, etc., in Indigenous Schools.

free grants or of advances repayable in one sum or in instalments, under the following conditions. (b) Free grants are made according to the merits of each case, and are generally regulated by the proportion of private subscriptions which may be raised to meet the grant. The same proportion will not be required in every case, but will depend upon the report of local officers as to the pecuniary circumstances of the people. (c) In the case of advances the building or other property is mortgaged to the Government as security for repayment until the amount has been fully repaid. The cost of effecting the mortgage is defrayed by the Government.

The salary-grant system is a form of aid intended for the development of indigenous and other vernacular schools by enabling such schools to support themselves till they can be self-supporting from fees and results-grants. The salary-grants are of two classes, grants for schools managers and grants for women teachers. The manager of an indigenous school is eligible for a salary-grant provided he has passed the prescribed Government tests as a teacher, and provided, further, that he is fully engaged in the actual teaching of the school of which he is manager. The grant is as follows: *For Salary*, to a manager with full Secondary Grade Vernacular Certificate, Rs. 15 *per mensem* for the first year and Rs. 10 *per mensem* for the second

Salary Grants in Indigenous Schools.

year; to managers with a full Primary Grade Vernacular Certificate, Rs. 10 *per mensem* for the first year and Rs. 8 *per mensem* for the second year.

These salaries are paid, as a rule, for two years only, though further payments may be made at the discretion of the Director of Public Instruction. *For Equipment and Furniture*, a grant of Rs. 25 for text-books and of Rs. 50 for furniture and equipment.

ACCOUNT OF THE INSEIN REFORMATORY SCHOOL.

Up to the year 1882 no special provision was made in Burma for the imprisonment of juvenile offenders. In that year, however, an institution known as the Paungdè Reformatory was opened. At the close of 1896 there were 88 boys in this institution. In December, 1896, the boys were transferred to a school at Insein, near Rangoon; and this school was established as a Reformatory School under the Reformatory Schools Act of 1897, by a Judicial Department Notification dated 12th June, 1897.

On the same date the following rules were published in regard to the period for which a youthful offender might be sent to the reformatory:—Rule I. If (a) either of a youthful offender's parents is an habitual criminal; or (b) the youthful offender is destitute; or (c) the circumstances under which the youthful offender is convicted indicate a general corruption of moral character; or (d) the youthful offender, having been once previously convicted, is again convicted of a similar offence,—then the period for which he may be sent to a reformatory school shall not be less than:—

- (1) if he is not over ten years of age,—seven years;
- (2) if he is over ten and not over thirteen,—five years;
- (3) if he is over thirteen,—such period as will bring him to eighteen years of age.

Rule II. The period for which a youthful offender, whose case does not fall within Rule I., may be sent to a reformatory school shall not be less than:—

- (1) if he is not over ten years of age,—five years;
- (2) if he is over ten years of age,—three years.

The following are the rules now in force in regard to the Insein Reformatory School and its management:—

A.

RULE CONCERNING "PROHIBITED ARTICLES."

The under-mentioned articles shall be deemed to be "prohibited articles"—

- (a) intoxicating liquors and drugs, including opium and ganja;
- (b) tobacco;
- (c) money;
- (d) gunpowder, lead, matches, and firearms;
- (e) knives, *das*, and instruments for cutting or stabbing not provided for the industrial training;
- (f) cards, dice, and other instruments for lotteries or gaming; and
- (g) all articles the possession of which and the purpose whereof have not been authorised by the Superintendent.

B.

RULES FOR MANAGEMENT.

(a) *The conduct of business by the Committee of Visitors.*

I.—A general meeting of the Committee of Visitors shall be held every month at the school on such day as the Committee may by resolution fix, and at such other times as the Committee may think necessary. Three members shall form a quorum.

II.—Every member of the Committee shall have access to the school at all times. Each month a member of the Committee shall be appointed visitor for the month, and the notes recorded by him on the occasion of his visits shall be entered in the Visitors' Book and laid before the Committee at the monthly meeting.

III.—On the occasion of each monthly meeting the Committee shall, as laid down in section 23 of the Act—

- (a) visit the school, to hear complaints and see that the requirements of section 6 of the Reformatory Schools Act, 1897, have been complied with, and that the management of the school is satisfactory in all respects;
- (b) examine the punishment register;
- (c) bring any special cases to the notice of the Inspector-General;
- (d) see that no person is illegally detained in the school; and shall also
- (e) see every boy confined in the school; and
- (f) pass the accounts; and
- (g) examine the report book referred to in Rule IX.

IV.—The proceedings of each meeting shall be recorded in a minute-book and the minutes shall be confirmed (after corrections if necessary) at the following meeting.

V.—A member of the Committee visiting the school shall make a note in the visitors' book, to be kept for the purpose, of every visit paid by him, with such remarks as he may wish to make on each subject that has come before his notice; and it shall be the duty of the Superintendent to lay such visitors' book before the Committee at their monthly meeting.

(b) The management of the school.

VI.—The school shall be managed by the Superintendent, subject to the provisions of the Reformatory Schools Act, 1897, and the rules made thereunder, and subject to the control of the Committee of Visitors and the Secretary thereto.

VII.—The Superintendent shall live in the quarters provided for him and shall devote himself solely to the management of the school, and shall not engage in any other business or pursuit without the consent of the Committee.

VIII.—It shall be the duty of the Superintendent to be present with the boys during the working hours, and to acquaint himself with the conduct and character of each boy and his progress in industrial training.

IX.—The Superintendent shall keep a report book, in which he shall make notes of all occurrences of importance and of any matters on which he may require the orders of the Committee of Visitors. He shall also keep such registers of admissions, licenses, and releases, and such accounts as may from time to time be prescribed by the Local Government or the Committee.

X.—The appointment and dismissal of subordinate officials and menial servants shall lie with the Committee, or with members of their body, or with the Superintendent, according as the Committee may by resolution direct.

XI.—It shall be the duty of the Superintendent to be present both when the dormitories are locked for the night and when they are unlocked in the morning. If, owing to illness or other cause, he is unable to perform this duty, he may delegate it to the head peon, noting the fact at the same time in his report book.

XII.—During the night the keys of the dormitories shall be kept by the peon at the entrance gate, and the dormitories shall not be opened without the previous permission of the Superintendent, save in the case of fire or other emergency.

XIII.—A peon shall be on duty at the entrance gate at all hours during the night and day, and another peon shall patrol within the enclosure during the night time.

XIV.—The Hospital Assistant attached to the Insein Jail shall do duty when required in the school, which shall be under the medical supervision of the Superintendent of the Insein Jail. The Hospital Assistant shall keep such registers and returns as shall be prescribed by the Committee.

XV.—The Medical Officer shall enter in a book, to be kept for that purpose, a note of all cases of serious illness attended by him in the school and of the treatment prescribed.

XVI.—All cases of sudden or violent death shall at once be reported to the nearest Magistrate empowered to hold inquests, with the request that he will hold an inquest and communicate his finding to the Committee of Visitors.

XVII.—No person other than the Lieutenant-Governor (together with the members of his staff in attendance on him) shall be admitted within the

school premises unless accompanied by a member of the Committee, or unless furnished with a written permission signed by the Inspector-General, or the President of the Committee, or the Commissioner, Pegu Division, or a Secretary to the Government of Burma.

XVIII.—Every youthful offender upon admission to the school shall be given a number according to a consecutive series running from 1 to 5,000, and shall wear a distinctive dress.

XIX.—With a view to encourage good conduct and industry, the Committee shall prescribe a system of marks under which small gratuities, not exceeding 8 annas a month, may be earned, one-half of the amount to be spent, at the wish of the boy, on fruits, sweetmeats, and other luxuries not falling within the list of forbidden articles, and the other half to be retained by the Committee pending the boy's discharge.

XX.—The Committee shall also frame rules for the promotion of deserving boys to the grade of monitor; the gratuities earned under the mark system by a monitor shall be double those laid down by the preceding rule.

XXI.—Marks shall be awarded by the Superintendent weekly, and the mark register shall be laid before the Committee at their monthly meeting.

XXII.—It shall be the duty of the Superintendent to lay before the Committee at its general meetings the name of any youthful offender whose period of detention will expire before the next general meeting, and the Committee shall order the discharge of such youthful offender on the date on which his sentence terminates. The Committee shall at the same time examine the account of gratuities payable to those about to be released, and, if a boy has earned no gratuity, shall order the payment for him of subsistence allowance.

XXIII.—The subsistence allowance payable under the last preceding rule shall amount to two annas per diem for as many days' journey on foot as the youthful offender's home is distant from the Reformatory School. When a part of the journey can be performed by rail or steamer, the Superintendent shall provide the youthful offender with a railway ticket or passage warrant or steamer ticket to the station nearest his home, and in that case subsistence allowance shall be calculated according to the distance of the youthful offender's home from the said station, with an allowance of two annas per diem for the number of days the journey will take.

XXIV.—The Superintendent shall take care that no youthful offender is discharged from the Reformatory improperly clothed. Every youthful offender on discharge, if no clothing of his own is in store, and if none is brought by his friends, shall be provided with decent clothes such as are usually worn by boys of the agricultural class.

XXV.—It shall be in the discretion of the Committee to direct that the amount of gratuity payable to a youthful offender on his release shall be paid to himself or to some relative or friend on his behalf.

XXVI.—Whenever it shall appear to the Committee that any offender detained in the Reformatory School will reach the age of 18 before the period of his detention will expire, the Committee shall make a report to the Local Government requesting an order for his discharge under sections 13 and 14 of the Act.

XXVII.—The diet scale shall be as follows:—

At 6 A.M.—a rice-cake.

Morning meal at 9 A.M.

	Weight uncooked.
Rice	10 to 12 oz.
Meat, or fish, or dhal	4 oz.
Vegetables	4 oz.
Salt	4 drs.
Oil	4 drs.
Ngapi	4 drs.

At 2 P.M.—a rice-cake.

Evening meal.

	Weight uncooked.
Rice	10 to 12 oz.
Vegetables	4 oz.
Salt	4 drs.
Oil	4 drs.
Ngapi	4 drs.

The under-mentioned quantities of condiments shall be issued with each meal:—

	Drams.
Turmeric	$\frac{1}{2}$
Chillies	$\frac{1}{4}$
Onions	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Tamarind	4

(c) *The educational and industrial training of youthful offenders.*

XXVIII.—The following shall be the routine to be observed in the school:—

The dormitories shall be unlocked at daylight, and the boys shall at once be marched off to perform their ablutions and visit the latrines. From 6 to 9 A.M. they shall be employed on the various works. At 9 A.M. the morning meal shall be served, and the boys shall be allowed till 10 A.M. to wash and rest. From 10 A.M. to 1.30 P.M. they shall attend school. From 1.30 to 2.30 P.M. shall be devoted to recreation. From 2.30 to 4.30 P.M. they shall be employed on the various works. From 4.30 P.M. to dusk the boys shall bathe, have their evening meal, and enjoy recreation. At dusk they shall again attend school for night preparation until 8.30 P.M., when they shall be marched to their dormitories and locked up for the night.

XXIX.—The following subjects shall be taught to all boys in the school:—

Reading, in Burmese. Writing, in Burmese.	Arithmetic, in Burmese. Geography, in Burmese.
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XXX.—With the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor, the Committee may arrange for other studies, including English.

XXXI.—The educational staff shall consist of such a number of masters and at such rates of salaries as may be fixed from time to time at a general meeting of the Committee, subject to the sanction of the Local Government. The Superintendent is expected to spend a portion of his time in the school-room.

XXXII.—Agricultural operations and gardening and such trades as the Committee may from time to time determine to introduce shall be taught, regard being had to the probable demand for the boy's labour on their discharge from the school.

The Superintendent shall see that the boys are constantly and suitably employed, and shall endeavour to develop in them an interest and pride in their work and to inculcate that industry is essential to their moral and physical well-being.

XXXIII.—For each trade taught in the school there shall be a special instructor. The number of such instructors and the salaries to be paid them shall be regulated by the Committee with the sanction of the Local Government.

(d) Visits to, and communication with, youthful offenders.

XXXIV.—The parents and near relations of the boys shall be allowed to visit them once a month and to correspond with them at reasonable times, unless this privilege is suspended or withdrawn by the Superintendent in consequence of misconduct or interference with the discipline of the school. If a boy is seriously ill, or is about to be removed from the school by legal discharge, notice shall be sent to the parents.

(e) Conditions under which "prohibited articles" may be introduced.

XXXV.—Prohibited articles may be introduced into the school only by the order of the Superintendent, or of the Secretary or President of the Committee, or under resolution of the Committee.

(f) Removal of "prohibited articles."

XXXVI.—Any prohibited article introduced otherwise than under Rule XXXV. shall be taken by any official or servant of the school to the Superintendent to be dealt with by him.

(g) Supply of "prohibited articles" outside the school.

XXXVII.—No prohibited article may be supplied outside the school to any youthful offender under order of detention therein, unless such youthful offender is licensed under Rule XLV.

XXXVIII.—To a youthful offender licensed under Rule XLVII such prohibited articles may be supplied by his employer only as the superintendent may by indorsement on the license approve.

(h) *Sanctioned possession of "prohibited articles."*

XXXIX.—A youthful offender may possess a prohibited article only in accordance with Rule XXXVIII, or with the special sanction of the Superintendent.

(i) *The penalties for possession of "prohibited articles."*

XL.—Possession of a prohibited article by a youthful offender, or supply of a prohibited article by one youthful offender to another, except under Rule XXXIX, shall be deemed to be an act of misconduct and shall be punishable by the Superintendent with any of the penalties mentioned in Rules XLI to XLIV, according to circumstances.

(j) *The punishment for offences committed by youthful offenders.*

XLI.—The Superintendent is authorised to punish the misconduct of any boy detained in the school; but all such punishments shall be entered in a register which shall be kept for the purpose and shall be laid before the Committee at every meeting.

XLII.—The authorised punishments shall be as follows:—

- (a) Formal warning.
- (b) *Loss of marks.*—The forfeiture for each offence not to exceed the equivalent of one rupee in the case of ordinary boys and two rupees in the case of monitors.
- (c) Degradation from monitorship for a period not exceeding six months or, with the sanction of the Secretary, permanently.
- (d) Separate confinement for a period not exceeding one week.
- (e) Corporal punishment with a light cane on the hands or buttocks; the number of stripes not to exceed six on the hands or twelve on the buttocks.

EXPLANATION.

Separate confinement means such confinement with or without labour as secludes a boy from communication with, but not from sight of, other boys, and allows him to take not less than one hour's exercise per diem and to have his meals in association with one or more other boys.

XLIII.—Any two of the punishments enumerated in the foregoing rules may be awarded in combination, except as follows:—

- (1) Formal warning shall not be combined with any other punishment, except loss of marks for the day on which it is administered.
- (2) Corporal punishment shall not be combined with any other form of punishment except separate confinement and loss of marks.

XLIV.—When the Superintendent is of opinion that misconduct committed by any boy cannot be adequately punished by him under the provisions of Rule XLII, and when such misconduct amounts to a criminal of-

fence, the Superintendent shall prosecute the boy before the Subdivisional Magistrate of Insein, or the District Magistrate of Hanthawaddy.

(k) *The granting of licenses for the employment of youthful offenders.*

XLV.—No license shall be granted for the employment of any youthful offender unless such youthful offender has been detained in the school for a period of two years and his conduct during the previous 12 months at least has, in the opinion of the Committee, been entirely satisfactory.

XLVI.—Before a license is granted for the employment of any youthful offender the Committee shall satisfy themselves that the employer is prepared to provide a suitable lodging and sufficient maintenance and clothing for such youthful offender.

XLVII.—A license shall be worded as follows:—

“Whereas A B is at present detained in the Insein Reformatory School under a warrant signed by _____, and dated _____, and whereas the said A B has attained the age of 14 years and has conducted himself to the satisfaction of the Committee, and whereas C D, being a trustworthy and respectable person and an employer of labour, to wit, _____, is willing to receive and take charge of the said A B and to keep the said A B employed at the occupation of a _____ . These presents witness that the said A B is hereby licensed to live under the charge of C D for a term of three months from this date.

“(Signed)

Superintendent.”

Dated

And at the foot of such license shall be printed the following notes:—

- (1) This license is in force for three months only, but it may be renewed from time to time for a similar period at the wish of the employers.
- (2) The license may be cancelled at the desire of the employer.
- (3) The license is, moreover, determined by—
 - (a) the death of the employer;
 - (b) his cessation from business;
 - (c) the expiration of the period for which the boy can be detained in the school.
- (4) The license may be cancelled by the Superintendent if it appears to him that the employer has ill-treated the boy or inadequately provided for his lodging and maintenance.
- (5) If the boy herein licensed behaves well during one or more periods of his license, the Superintendent has power to apprentice him under Act XIX of 1850. When he is so apprenticed, the Committee's right to detain him ceases and the expired term of his sentence is cancelled.
- (6) A boy who escapes from the charge of his employer may be arrested by any police officer without a warrant.

XLVIII.—The original license shall be delivered to the employer, and a copy may be given to the youthful offender whom it concerns. A register of licenses shall be kept up by the Superintendent in such form as the Committee may prescribe.

Boys licensed under these rules need not wear the school clothing, but shall report themselves at least once a week to the Superintendent of the school or other officer who may be suggested by the Committee and approved by the Lieutenant-Governor.

XLIX.—It shall be the duty of the Superintendent to give due notice to any employer:—

- (i) when any boy's license is about to terminate; and
- (ii) when the period for which he can be detained is about to expire.

STATISTICS OF THE INSEIN REFORMATORY.

Until the 1st of April, 1900, the Insein Reformatory was under the control of the Jail Department. On that date it was transferred to the control of the Education Department.

The following figures indicate the general condition of the reformatory according to the latest official report, that for 1905.

At the beginning of 1905 the reformatory had 76 inmates; there were admitted during the year 19 boys, and 16 boys were discharged; one boy died during the year; the number of boys in the reformatory at the end of the year 1905 was 78.

Of these 78 boys 33 were able to read, and 45 were illiterate. Classified according to religion, there were 7 Hindus, 7 Muhammadans, the remaining 64 being Buddhists. Instruction in agriculture was imparted to 26 boys, and instruction in other industries to 52 boys.

Several hours a day are devoted to the general education of the boys; and the following table shows the results of the examination of the school by a Deputy Inspector of the Education Department:—

	Number Examined.	Number Passed.
First Standard	32	25
Second Standard	16	14
Third Standard	10	9
Fourth Standard	3	3
Fifth Standard	3	3
	64	54

The school was also examined in technical subjects, with the following results:—

		Number Examined.	Number Passed.
Cane-work	Fourth Standard	3	3
	Fifth Standard	1	1
	Sixth Standard	1	1
	Seventh Standard	1	1
Carpentry	Fourth Standard	6	6
	Fifth Standard	3	3
	Seventh Standard	2	2
Tin-work	Fourth Standard	7	7
	Fifth Standard	7	7
	Sixth Standard	4	4
	Seventh Standard	3	3
		38	38

It is impossible to trace accurately the after-conduct of boys discharged from the school, for a large proportion of them are lost sight of. The information available on this subject in the Report for 1905 may be briefly summarised.

During the years 1902, 1903, and 1904 the total number of boys discharged from the school was 79. In regard to these the following data are given:—of 27 boys taught agriculture in the school, 3 are employed in agriculture; of 52 boys taught other trades and handicrafts, 7 are employed in the industry which they learned in the school; 22 are employed in industries which were not taught them at school; 12 are unemployed or with friends; 3 have been re-convicted; 6 are known as bad characters; and 26 have been lost sight of or have not been reported on.

APPENDICES

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- APPENDIX B. The People of Burma. Tables from the Indian Census of 1901.
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APPENDIX A.

REPRINT OF
TREATIES RELATING TO BURMA

- I. The Treaty of Yandaboo, 1826.
 - II. Commercial Treaty with Ava, 1826.
 - III. Treaty for the Protection of Trade, 1862.
 - IV. Treaty for the Further Protection of Trade, for the Establishment of a Court at Mandalay, and for the Appointment of a Political Agent at Bhamo, 1867.
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APPENDIX A.

REPRINT OF

TREATIES RELATING TO BURMA

No. I.

THE TREATY OF YANDABOO, 1826.

Treaty of Peace between the Honourable East India Company on the one part, and His Majesty the King of Ava on the other, settled by Major-General Sir Archibald Campbell, K.C.B., . . . on the part of the Honourable Company; and by Mengyee-Maha-Men-Hlah-Kyan-Ten Woongyee, Lord of Lay-Kaing, and Mengyee-Mahah-Men-Halh-Tho-Hah-Thoo-Atwen-Woon, Lord of the Revenue, on the part of the King of Ava; who have each communicated to the other their full powers, agreed to, and executed at Yandaboo, in the Kingdom of Ava, on this twenty-fourth day of February, in the year of Our Lord one thousand eight hundred and twenty-six, corresponding with the fourth day of the decrease of the Moon Taboung in the year one thousand one hundred and eighty-seven Gaudama Æra.

ARTICLE 1.

There shall be perpetual peace and friendship between the Honourable Company on the one part and His Majesty the King of Ava on the other.

ARTICLE 2.

His Majesty the King of Ava renounces all claims upon, and will abstain from all future interference with the principality of Assam and its dependencies, and also with the contiguous petty States of Cachar and Jyntia. With regard to Munnipoor it is stipulated, that should Ghumbheer Sing desire to return to that country he shall be recognised by the King of Ava as Rajah thereof.

ARTICLE 3.

To prevent all future disputes respecting the boundary line between the two great Nations, the British government will retain the conquered provinces of Arakan, including the four divisions of Arakan, Ramree, Cheduba, and Sandoway, and His Majesty the King of Ava cedes all right thereto. The Unnoupectoumien or Arakan mountains (known in Arakan by the name of the Yeomatoung or Pokhingloun range) will henceforth form the boundary between the two great Nations on that side. Any doubts regarding the said line of demarcation will be settled by Commissioners appointed by the respective Governments for that purpose, such Commissioners from both Powers to be of suitable and corresponding rank.

ARTICLE 4.

His Majesty the King of Ava cedes to the British Government the conquered Provinces of Yeh, Tavoy, and Mergui and Tenasserim, with the islands and dependencies thereunto appertaining, taking the Salween river as the line of demarcation on that frontier; any doubts regarding their boundaries will be settled as specified in the concluding part of Article third.

ARTICLE 5.

In proof of the sincere disposition of the Burmese Government to maintain the relations of peace and amity between the Nations; and as part indemnification to the British Government for the expenses of the war, His Majesty the King of Ava agrees to pay the sum of one crore of rupees.

ARTICLE 6.

No person whatever, whether native or foreign, is hereafter to be molested by either party, on account of the part which he may have taken, or have been compelled to take in the present war.

ARTICLE 7.

In order to cultivate and improve the relations of amity, and peace hereby established between the two Governments, it is agreed, that accredited ministers, retaining an escort, or safeguard of fifty men, from each, shall reside at the Durbar of the other, who shall be permitted to purchase, or to build a suitable place of residence, of permanent materials; and a Commercial Treaty, upon principles of reciprocal advantage, will be entered into by the two high contracting Powers.

ARTICLE 8.

All public and private debts contracted by either Government or by the subjects of either Government, with the others previous to the war, to be recognised and liquidated upon the same principles of honour and good faith, as if hostilities had not taken place between the two nations, and no advantage shall be taken by either party of the period that may have elapsed since the debts were incurred, or in consequence of the war; and according to the universal law of nations, it is further stipulated, that the property of all British subjects who may die in the dominions of His Majesty the King of Ava, shall, in the absence of legal heirs, be placed in the hands of the British Resident or Consul in the said dominions, who will dispose of the same according to the tenor of the British law. In like manner, the property of Burmese subjects dying under the same circumstances, in any part of the British dominions, shall be made over to the minister or other authority delegated by His Burmese Majesty to the Supreme Government of India.

ARTICLE 9.

The King of Ava will abolish all exactions upon British ships or vessels in Burman ports, that are not required from Burmah ships or vessels in

British ports, nor shall ships or vessels, the property of British subjects, whether European or Indian, entering the Rangoon river or other Burman ports, be required to land their guns, or unship their rudders, or to do any other act not required of Burmese ships or vessels in British ports.

ARTICLE 10.

The good and faithful ally of the British Government, His Majesty the King of Siam, having taken a part in the present war, will, to the fullest extent, as far as regards His Majesty and his subjects, be included in the above treaty.

ARTICLE 11.

This treaty to be ratified by the Burmese authorities competent in the like cases, and the ratification to be accompanied by all British, whether European or Native, American and other prisoners, who will be delivered over to the British Commissioners; the British Commissioners on their part engaging, that the said treaty shall be ratified by the Right Honourable the Governor-General in Council, and the ratification shall be delivered to His Majesty, the King of Ava, in four months, or sooner if possible, and all the Burmese prisoners shall, in like manner, be delivered over to their own Government as soon as they arrive from Bengal.

ADDITIONAL ARTICLE.

The British Commissioners being most anxiously desirous to manifest the sincerity of their wish for peace, and to make the immediate execution of the fifth article of this treaty as little irksome or inconvenient as possible to His Majesty the King of Ava, consent to the following arrangements, with respect to the division of the sum total, as specified in the article before referred to, into instalments; viz. Upon the payment of twenty-five lacks of rupees, or one fourth of the sum total (the other articles of the treaty being executed) the army will retire to Rangoon. Upon the further payment of a similar sum at that place, within one hundred days from this date, with the proviso as above, the army will evacuate the dominions of His Majesty the King of Ava with the least possible delay, leaving the remaining moiety of the sum total, to be paid by equal annual instalments in two years from this twenty-fourth day of February, 1826, A.D. through the Consul or Resident in Ava or Pegu, on the part of the Honourable The East India Company.

No. II.

COMMERCIAL TREATY WITH AVA, 1826.

A commercial treaty, signed, and sealed at the golden city of Ra-ta-napara on the 23d of November 1826, according to the English, and the 9th of the decrease of the Moon Tan-soung-mong 1188, according to the Burmans, by the Envoy Crawford, appointed by the English ruler the Company's

Buren, who governs India, and the Commissioners, the Atwenwuns Mengyi-thi-ha-maha-then Kyan, Lord of Sau, and the Atwenwuns Mengyi-Maha-men-Iha-thi-ha-thu, Lord of the Revenue, appointed by His Majesty the Burmese rising Sun Buren, who reigns over Thu-na-pa-ran-ta-Tam-pa-di-pa, and many other great countries.

According to the Treaty of Peace between the two great nations made at Yandaboo, in order to promote the prosperity of both countries, and with a desire to assist and protect the trade of both, the Commissioner and Envoy Crawford appointed by the English Company's Buren who rules India, and the Commissioners, the Atenwun Mengyi-thi-ha-maha-nanda-then Kyan, Lord of Sau, and the Atwenwun Mengyi-Maha-men-Iha-thi-ha-thu, Lord of the Revenue, appointed by His Majesty the Burmese rising Sun Buren, who rules over Thu-na-pa-ra-Tam-pa-di-pa, and many other great countries. These three in the conference tent at the landing-place of Ze-ya-pu-ra, north of the golden city of Ye-ta-na-pura, with mutual consent completed this engagement.

ARTICLE 1.

Peace being made between the great country governed by the English Prince the India Company Buren, and the great country of Ya-ta-na-pura, which rules over Thu-na-para-Tam-pa-di-pa, and many other great countries, which merchants with an English stamped pass from the country of the English Prince and merchants from the Kingdom of Burmah pass from one country to the other, selling and buying merchandise, the sentinels at the passes and entrances, the established gate-keepers of the country, shall make inquiry as usual, but without demanding any money, and all merchants coming truly for the purpose of trade with merchandise shall be suffered to pass without hindrance or molestation. The Governments of both countries also shall permit ships with cargoes to enter ports and carry on trade, giving them the utmost protection and security: and in regard to duties, there shall none be taken beside the customary duties at the landing places of trade.

ARTICLE 2.

Ships whose breadth of beam on the inside (opening of the hold) is eight Royal Burmese cubits of $19\frac{1}{10}$ English inches each, and all ships of smaller size, whether merchants from the Burmese country entering an English port under the Burmese flag, or merchants from the English country with an English stamped pass entering a Burmese port under the English flag, shall be subjected to no other demands beside the payment of duties and ten ticals 25 per cent. (10 sicca rupees) for a chokey pass on leaving. Nor shall pilotage be demanded unless the captain voluntarily requires a pilot. However, when ships arrive, information shall be given to the officer stationed at the entrance of the sea, in regard to vessels whose breadth of beam exceeds eight royal cubits, and remain according to the 9th article of the treaty of Yandaboo without unshipping their rudders, or landing their guns, and be free from trouble and molestation as Burmese vessels in British ports. Besides the Royal duties, no more duties shall be given or taken than such as are customary.

ARTICLE 3.

Merchants belonging to one, who go to the other country and remain there, shall, when they desire to return, go to whatever place and by whatever vessel they may desire, without hindrance. Property owned by merchants they shall be allowed to sell; and property not sold and household furniture, they shall be allowed to take away without hindrance, or incurring any expense.

ARTICLE 4.

English and Burmese vessels meeting with contrary winds or sustaining damage in masts, rigging, etc., or suffering shipwreck on the shore, shall, according to the laws of charity, receive assistance from the inhabitants of the towns and villages that may be near, the master of the wrecked ship paying to those that assist suitable salvage, according to the circumstances of the case; and whatever property may remain, in the case of shipwreck, shall be restored to the owner.

No. III.

TREATY FOR THE PROTECTION OF TRADE, 1862.

On the 10th day of November 1862, answering to the 5th day of the waning moon Tatshoungmon 1224, Lieutenant Colonel A. P. Phayre, Chief Commissioner of British Burmah, having been duly empowered by his Excellency the Right Honourable the Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, K.T., and G.C.B., Viceroy and Governor-General of India, and Woongyee Thado Mengyee Maha Menghla-thee-ha-thoo, having been duly empowered by His Majesty the King of Burmah, concluded the following treaty:—

ARTICLE 1.

The Burmese and British rulers have for a long time remained at peace and in friendship. Peace shall now be extended to future generations, both parties being careful to observe the conditions of a firm and lasting friendship.

ARTICLE 2.

In accordance with the great friendship existing between the two countries, traders and other subjects of the Burmese Government who may travel and trade in the British territory, shall, in conformity with the custom of great countries, be treated and protected in the same manner as if they were subjects of the British Government.

ARTICLE 3.

Traders and other subjects of the British Government, who may travel and trade in the Burmese territory, shall, in accordance with the custom of great countries, be treated and protected in the same manner as if they were subjects of the Burmese Government.

ARTICLE 4.

When goods are imported into Rangoon from any British or foreign territory, and declared to be for export by the Irrawaddy River to the Burmese territory, the English ruler shall, provided bulk is not broken, and he believes the manifest to be true, charge 1 per cent. on their value; and if he so desires, shall allow them to be conveyed under the charge of an officer until arrival at Maloon and Menhla. The tariff value of goods shall be forwarded yearly to the Burmese ruler. If such goods are declared for export to other territories, and not for sale in the Burmese territories, the Burmese ruler shall, if he believes the manifest to be true, not cause bulk to be broken, and such goods shall be free of duty.

ARTICLE 5.

When goods are imported into Burmah by persons residing in the Burmese or any foreign territory, and declared to be for export by the Irrawaddy River to Rangoon, the Burmese ruler shall, provided bulk is not broken, and he believes the manifest to be true, charge 1 per cent. on their value; and, if he so desires, shall allow them to be conveyed under the charge of an officer to Thayet-myo, and the tariff value of such goods shall be forwarded yearly to the British ruler. If such goods are declared for export to other territories, and not for sale in British territory, such goods shall be free according to the customs schedule, but goods liable to sea-board duty will pay the usual rate.

ARTICLE 6.

Traders from the Burmese territory who may desire to travel in the British territory, either by land or by water, through the whole course of the Irrawaddy River, shall conform to the customs of the British territory, and be allowed to travel in such manner as they please, without hindrance from the British ruler, and to purchase whatever they may require. Burmese merchants will be allowed to settle and to have land for the erection of houses of business in any part of the British territory.

ARTICLE 7.

Traders from the British territory, who may desire to travel in the Burmese territory, either by land or by water, through the whole extent of the Irrawaddy River, shall conform to the customs of the Burmese territory, and shall be allowed to travel in such manner as they please, without hindrance by the Burmese ruler, and to purchase whatever they may require. British will be allowed to settle and to have lands for the erection of houses of business in any part of the Burmese territory.

ARTICLE 8.

Should the British ruler, within one year after the conclusion of this Treaty, abolish the duties now taken at Thayet-myo and Toungoo, the Burmese Ruler, with a regard to the benefit of the people of his country, will, if so in-

clined, after one, two, three, or four years, abolish the duties now taken at Maloon and Toungoo (in the Burmese territory).

ARTICLE 9.

People, from whatever country or nation, who may wish to proceed to the British territory, the Burmese ruler shall allow to pass without hindrance. People, from whatever country, who may desire to proceed to the Burmese territory, the British ruler shall allow to pass without hindrance.

No. IV.

TREATY FOR THE FURTHER PROTECTION OF TRADE, ETC., 1867.

Treaty concluded on 25th October 1867 A.D., corresponding with the 13th day of the waning moon Thaden-gyoot 1229 B.E., by Colonel Albert Fytche, Chief Commissioner of British Burmah, in virtue of full powers vested in him by His Excellency the Right Honourable Sir John Laird Mair Lawrence, Bart., G.C.B., G.C.S.I., Viceroy and Governor-General of India, and by His Excellency the Pakhan Woongyee, Men-Thudo-Mengyee Maha Menhla See-Thoo, in virtue of full power vested in him by His Majesty the King of Burmah.

ARTICLE 1.

Save and except earth-oil, timber, and precious stones, which are hereby reserved as royal monopolies, all goods and merchandise passing between British and Burmese territory shall be liable, at the Burmese customs houses, to the payment of a uniform import and export duty of five per cent. *ad valorem* for a period of ten years, commencing from the first day of the Burmese year 1229, corresponding with the 15th April 1867. No indirect dues or payments of any kind shall be levied or demanded on such goods over and above the five per cent. *ad valorem* duty.

ARTICLE 2.

But after the expiration of ten years, during which customs duties will be collected as provided for above in Article 1, it shall be optional with the Burmese Government, whilst estimating the capabilities and requirements of trade, either to increase or decrease the existing five per cent. import and export duties, so that the increase shall at no time exceed ten, or the decrease be reduced below a three per cent. *ad valorem* rate on any particular article of commerce. Three months' notice shall be given of any intention to increase or decrease the rates of customs duty as above, previous to the commencement of the year in which such increase or decrease shall have effect.

ARTICLE 3.

The British Government hereby stipulates that it will adhere to the abolition of Frontier Customs Duty, as expressed in Article 8 of the Treaty of

1862, during such time as the Burmese Government shall collect five per cent. *ad valorem* duties, or a lesser rate as provided for in Articles 1 and 2 of this treaty.

ARTICLE 4.

Both Governments further stipulate to furnish each other annually with price lists, showing the market value of all goods exported and imported under Articles 1 and 2. Such price lists shall be furnished two months before the commencement of the year during which they are to have effect, and may be corrected from time to time as found necessary, by the mutual consent of both Governments through their respective political agents.

ARTICLE 5.

The British Government is hereby privileged to establish a Resident or Political Agent in Burmese territory with full and final jurisdiction in all civil suits arising between registered British subjects at the capital. Civil cases between Burmese subjects and registered British subjects shall be heard and finally decided by a mixed court composed of the British Political Agent and a suitable Burmese officer of high rank. The Burmese Government reserves to itself the right of establishing a Resident or Political Agent in British territory whenever it may choose to do so.

ARTICLE 6.

The British Government is further allowed the right of appointing British officials to reside at any or each of the stations in Burmese territory at which customs duty may be leviable. Such officials shall watch and inquire into all cases affecting trade, in its relation to customs duty; and may purchase land and build suitable dwelling-houses at any town or station where they may be appointed to reside.

ARTICLE 7.

In like manner the Burmese Government is allowed the right to appointing Burmese officials to reside at any or each of the stations in British Burmah at which customs duty may be leviable. Such officials shall watch and enquire into all cases affecting trade, in its relation to customs duty; and may purchase land and build suitable dwelling-houses at any town or station where they may be appointed to reside.

ARTICLE 8.

In accordance with the great friendship which exists between the two Governments, the subjects of either shall be allowed free trade in the import and export of gold and silver bullion between the two countries, without let or hindrance of any kind, on due declaration being made at the time of export or import. The Burmese Government shall further be allowed permission to purchase arms, ammunition, and war material generally in British territory, subject only to the consent and approval in each case of the Chief Commissioner of British Burmah and Agent to the Governor-General.

ARTICLE 9.

Persons found in British territory, being Burmese subjects, charged with having committed any of the following offences, viz. murder, robbery, dacoity, or theft, in Burmese territory, may be apprehended and delivered up to the Burmese Government for trial, on due demand being made by that Government, provided that the charge on which the demand is made shall have been investigated by the proper Burmese officers in the presence of the British Political Agent; and provided also the British Political Agent shall consider that sufficient cause exists under British law procedure to justify the said demand, and place the accused persons on their trial. The demand and delivery in each case shall be made through the British Political Agent at the capital.

ARTICLE 10.

Persons found in Burmese territory, being British subjects, charged with having committed any of the following offences, viz., murder, robbery, dacoity, or theft, in British territory, may be apprehended and delivered up to the British Government for trial, on due demand being made by that Government, provided that the charge on which the demand is made shall have been investigated by the proper British officers, in the presence of the Burmese political Agent; and provided also that the Burmese Political Agent shall be satisfied that sufficient cause exists under Burmese law procedure to justify the said demand, and put the accused persons on their trial. The demand and delivery in each case shall be made through the Burmese Political Agent in British territory.

ARTICLE 11.

Persons found in Burmese territory, being Burmese subjects, charged with having committed any of the following offences, viz., murder, robbery, dacoity, or theft, in British territory, shall, on apprehension, be tried and punished in accordance with Burmese law and custom. A special officer may be appointed by the British Government to watch proceedings on the trial of all persons apprehended under this Article.

ARTICLE 12.

Persons found in British territory, being British subjects, charged with having committed any of the following offences, viz., murder, robbery, dacoity, or theft, in Burmese territory, shall, on apprehension, be tried and punished in accordance with British law and custom. A special officer may be appointed by the Burmese Government to watch the proceedings on the trial of all persons apprehended under this Article.

ARTICLE 13.

The treaty which was concluded on the 10th November 1862 shall remain in full force; the stipulations now made and agreed to in the above articles being deemed as subsidiary only, and as in no way affecting the several provisions of that treaty.

APPENDIX B.

THE PEOPLE OF BURMA

TABLES FROM THE INDIAN CENSUS OF 1901.

- Table I. Indigenous and Non-indigenous Population of Burma.
- Table II. Population of Burma according to Religions.
- Table III. Population of Burma according to Occupations.
- Table IV. The Literacy of the Population of Burma by Age, Sex, and Religion.
- Table V. The Literacy of the Population of Burma by Age, Sex, and Language.
- Table VI. The Literacy of the Population of Burma by Districts and Natural Divisions.
- Table VII. Population of Burma according to Infirmities, by Districts.
- Table VIII. Population of Burma according to Infirmities, by Race.

APPENDIX B.

THE PEOPLE OF BURMA

TABLE I.
INDIGENOUS AND NON-INDIGENOUS POPULATION OF BURMA.

DISTRICT, STATE, OR CITY OF ENUMERATION.	PROPORTION PER 10,000.				Percent- age of immi- grants from out- side Burma to total popula- tion.	DISTRICT, STATE, OR CITY OF ENUMERATION.
	Born in Burma.	Born outside Burma.				
		Born in India.	Born in Asia beyond India.	Born in other Conti- nents.		
Bhamo	8,941	528	524	6	10.5 Bhamo
Myitkyina	8,742	616	638	3	12.5 Myitkyina
Katha	9,882	100	17	1	1.7 Katha
Ruby Mines	9,268	232	495	4	7.3 Ruby Mines
Upper Chindwin	9,840	147	11	2	1.5 Upper Chindwin
Northern Shan States	9,721	157	121	1	2.7 Northern Shan States
Southern Shan States	9,968	29	3	—	0.32 Southern Shan States
Chin Hills	9,808	152	40	—	1.9 Chin Hills
UPPER BURMA, WET	9,780	125	94	1	2.19 UPPER BURMA, WET
Pakókku	9,950	45	4	1	0.5 Pakókku
Minbu	9,931	60	8	1	0.6 Minbu
Magwe	9,947	49	3	1	0.5 Magwe
Mandalay (rural)	9,741	184	72	3	2.5 Mandalay (rural)
Shwebo	9,877	91	6	26	1.2 Shwebo
Sagaing	9,950	47	2	1	0.4 Sagaing
Lower Chindwin	9,937	60	3	—	0.6 Lower Chindwin
Kyaukse	9,906	85	8	1	0.9 Kyaukse
Meiktila	9,883	107	5	5	1.1 Meiktila
Yamethin	9,846	137	15	2	1.5 Yamethin
Myingyan	9,960	33	6	1	0.4 Myingyan
UPPER BURMA, DRY	9,910	76	10	4	0.8 UPPER BURMA, DRY
Akyab	8,457	1,531	8	4	15.4 Akyab
Northern Arakan	9,754	182	64	—	2.5 Northern Arakan
Kyaukpyu	9,920	70	10	—	0.7 Kyaukpyu
Sandoway	9,880	113	5	2	1.1 Sandoway
Hanthawaddy	9,028	903	66	3	9.7 Hanthawaddy
Pegu	9,375	561	63	1	6.2 Pegu
Bassein	9,582	381	33	4	4.1 Bassein
Myaungmya	9,795	160	44	1	2.0 Myaungmya
Thóngwa	9,621	317	61	1	3.7 Thóngwa
Salween	9,902	81	16	1	0.9 Salween
Thatón	9,537	403	59	1	4.6 Thatón
Amherst	9,026	850	117	7	9.7 Amherst
Tavoy	9,909	66	24	1	0.9 Tavoy
Mergui	9,538	112	349	1	4.6 Mergui
LOWER BURMA, LITTORAL	9,350	592	56	2	6.5	LOWER BURMA, LITTORAL
Tharrawaddy	9,724	245	30	1	2.7 Tharrawaddy
Prome	9,890	95	15	—	1.0 Prome
Henzada	9,884	99	16	1	1.1 Henzada
Toungoo	9,723	237	37	3	2.7 Toungoo
Thayetmyo	9,836	145	6	13	1.6 Thayetmyo
LOWER BURMA, SUB-DELTAIC	9,817	159	21	3	1.8	LOWER BURMA, SUB-DELTAIC
Rangoon City	4,485	5,012	382	117	55.1 Rangoon City
Mandalay City	9,229	653	50	68	7.7 Mandalay City
BURMA, WHOLE	9,542	401	51	6	4.5 BURMA, WHOLE

TABLE II.

POPULATION OF BURMA

DISTRICT OR STATE.	TOTAL POPULATION.			BUDDHIST.		ANIMIST.	
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Akyab	481,666	267,980	213,686	144,866	135,181	16,347	15,322
Northern Arakan	20,682	10,557	10,125	815	711	9,418	9,308
Kyaukpnyu	168,827	81,075	87,752	71,238	79,403	7,289	6,685
Sandoway	90,927	45,975	44,952	39,677	39,744	3,351	3,152
Total, Arakan Division	762,102	405,587	356,515	256,596	255,039	36,405	34,467
Rangoon Town	234,881	165,545	69,336	44,193	39,438	6,265	1,090
Hanthawaddy	484,811	267,002	217,809	219,211	203,223	2,547	374
Pegu	339,572	183,173	156,399	159,201	146,251	1,375	380
Tharrawaddy	395,570	201,033	194,537	188,136	190,435	865	181
Prome	365,804	178,462	187,342	169,979	181,321	4,299	4,333
Total, Pegu Division	1,820,638	995,215	825,423	780,720	760,668	15,351	6,358
Bassein	391,427	203,977	187,450	175,334	172,731	1,388	613
Myaungmya	303,274	158,977	144,297	145,848	136,383	813	127
Thongwa	484,410	261,406	223,004	238,608	215,576	2,398	234
Henzada	484,558	241,557	243,001	231,420	237,372	292	39
Total, Irrawaddy Division	1,663,669	865,917	797,752	791,210	762,062	4,891	1,013
Toungoo	279,315	143,685	135,630	114,660	112,002	8,409	7,268
Salween	37,837	19,464	18,373	7,516	6,275	11,513	11,962
Thaton	343,510	180,208	163,302	163,631	156,761	698	272
Amherst	300,173	163,930	136,243	128,526	121,391	1,376	597
Tavoy	109,979	54,574	55,405	52,067	53,583	527	463
Mergui	88,744	46,280	42,464	39,721	37,167	1,054	701
Total, Tenasserim Division	1,159,558	608,141	551,417	506,121	487,179	23,577	21,263
Thayetmyo	239,706	118,948	120,758	106,835	111,344	7,605	7,622
Pakokku	356,489	167,335	188,654	165,056	187,299	958	984
Minbu	233,377	111,750	121,627	107,385	118,458	2,796	2,671
Magwe	246,708	119,142	127,566	117,385	126,788	402	369
Total, Minbu Division	1,076,280	517,675	558,605	496,661	543,889	11,761	11,646
Mandalay	366,507	183,374	183,133	157,394	168,841	898	91
Bhamo	78,015	40,746	37,269	23,192	23,427	13,112	13,002
Myitkyina	46,114	26,555	19,559	12,901	10,616	9,338	8,012
Katha	176,223	86,494	89,729	81,786	86,302	2,767	2,993
Ruby Mines	87,694	48,214	39,480	37,689	31,842	7,917	7,223
Total, Mandalay Division	754,553	385,383	369,170	312,962	321,028	34,032	31,321
Shwebo	286,891	134,045	152,846	128,460	149,687	109	15
Sagaing	282,658	132,148	150,510	129,780	149,087	69	41
Lower Chindwin	276,383	121,967	154,416	120,172	154,077	65	2
Upper Chindwin	154,363	77,058	77,305	74,031	76,075	1,069	919
Total, Sagaing Division	1,000,295	465,218	535,077	452,443	528,926	1,312	977
Kyaukse	141,253	69,329	71,924	66,614	70,011	54	10
Meiktila	252,305	119,047	133,258	115,496	131,842	137	24
Yamethin	245,197	120,384	122,813	112,451	116,879	1,411	1,258
Myingyan	356,052	166,134	189,918	164,717	189,557	223	17
Total, Meiktila Division	992,807	474,894	517,913	459,278	508,289	1,825	1,309
GRAND TOTAL, BURMA	9,229,902	4,718,030	4,511,872	4,055,991	4,167,080	129,154	108,354
Northern Shan States	275,963	140,776	135,187	132,557	131,428	3,459	3,333
Southern Shan States	770,559	380,435	390,124	341,367	355,442	36,141	33,718
Chin Hills	87,189	43,167	44,022	213	43	41,533	43,698
GRAND TOTAL, PROVINCE	10,363,613	5,282,408	5,081,205	4,530,128	4,653,993	210,287	189,103

TABLES FROM THE CENSUS OF 1901 359

ACCORDING TO RELIGIONS.

TABLE II.

MUSALMAN.		HINDU.		CHRISTIAN.		SIKH.		District or State.
Males.	Females	Males.	Females	Males.	Females	Males.	Females	
92,879	62,283	13,248	729	563	157	46	3 Akyab
10	1	311	105	3	—	—	— Northern Arakan
2,083	1,592	402	14	63	58	—	— Kyaukpuy
2,115	1,791	537	21	287	241	6	3 Sandoway
97,087	65,667	14,498	869	916	456	52	6	. . . Total, Arakan Division
35,147	7,865	69,166	13,828	10,096	6,834	280	28 Rangoon Town
8,937	3,042	31,962	7,567	3,956	3,434	374	107 Hanthawaddy
3,523	1,259	14,416	4,186	4,655	4,323	—	— Pegu
2,117	1,015	7,696	758	2,160	2,141	55	7 Tharrawaddy
1,608	1,021	2,232	380	341	284	—	— Prome
51,332	14,202	125,472	26,719	21,208	17,066	709	142	. . . Total, Pegu Division
4,428	1,950	11,484	1,078	11,309	11,067	29	10 Bassein
3,087	921	2,211	194	7,006	6,670	7	— Myaungmya
4,604	926	10,280	1,094	5,512	5,174	1	— Thongwa
1,974	1,054	3,768	530	4,089	3,996	3	— Henzada
14,093	4,851	27,743	2,896	27,916	26,907	40	10	. . . Total, Irrawaddy Division
2,615	1,612	4,221	1,164	13,755	13,575	21	3 Toungoo
144	24	183	35	108	77	—	— Salween
4,790	2,077	10,024	3,142	1,045	1,038	—	— Thaton
11,607	6,405	19,865	5,483	2,459	2,346	81	12 Amherst
599	530	488	71	893	758	—	— Tavoy
3,661	3,460	685	74	1,155	1,060	—	— Mergui
23,416	14,108	35,466	9,969	19,415	18,854	102	15	Total, Tenasserim Division
1,623	808	1,701	651	588	293	592	38 Thayetmyo
527	175	877	88	135	58	280	50 Pakokku
638	284	719	98	106	93	89	23 Minbu
460	181	558	76	92	59	237	83 Magwe
3,248	1,448	3,855	913	921	503	1,198	194	. . . Total, Minbu Division
11,961	8,381	9,309	4,118	2,824	1,565	932	102 Mandalay
1,973	308	1,306	130	429	355	725	47 Bhamo
865	195	3,128	684	110	51	202	— Myitkyina
693	243	1,105	132	109	44	34	10 Katha
612	155	1,769	213	145	31	81	16 Ruby Mines
16,104	9,287	16,617	5,277	3,617	2,046	1,974	175	. . . Total, Mandalay Division
2,374	1,961	1,336	250	1,583	910	180	22 Shebo
1,044	759	751	179	422	436	73	3 Sagaing
636	150	817	94	126	62	151	31 Lower Chindwin
638	142	992	119	194	40	131	10 Upper Chindwin
4,692	3,012	3,896	642	2,325	1,448	535	66	. . . Total, Sagaing Division
1,789	1,642	612	72	240	189	11	— Kyaukse
1,689	942	1,357	290	355	153	4	3 Meiktila
4,058	3,746	1,762	364	561	441	138	122 Yamethin
500	170	585	101	107	73	2	— Myingyan
8,036	6,500	4,316	827	1,272	856	155	125	. . . Total, Meiktila Division
218,008	119,075	231,863	48,112	77,590	68,136	4,765	733	. . . GRAND TOTAL, BURMA
1,122	147	3,329	171	159	79	150	29 Northern Shan States
878	118	878	102	795	733	368	10 Southern Shan States
91	7	860	169	29	4	440	101 Chin Hills
220,099	119,347	236,930	48,554	78,573	68,952	5,723	873	. . . GRAND TOTAL, PROVINCE

TABLE III.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS A.—GOVERNMENT.				
ORDER I.—ADMINISTRATION.				
Suborder 1.—Civil Service of the State.				
1. The Viceroy, the heads of Local Administrations and agencies, and their families	3	1	—	2
2. Officers of Government and their families . . .	3,873	918	—	2,955
3. Office superintendents, clerks, police and excise inspectors, sub-registrars, etc., and their families	26,087	8,336	61	17,690
4. Constables, messengers, bailiffs, warders, menials, and unspecified	39,868	17,068	60	22,740
Total, Suborder 1	69,831	26,323	121	43,387
Suborder 2.—Service of Local and Municipal Bodies.				
5. Inspecting and supervising officials	507	139	12	356
6. Clerical establishment	1,680	570	3	1,107
7. Menials, other than scavengers	4,150	2,357	41	1,752
Total, Suborder 2	6,337	3,066	56	3,215
Suborder 3.—Village Service.				
8. Headmen, not shown as agriculturists	62,335	15,611	—	46,724
9. Accountants, not shown as agriculturists	6,984	2,089	—	4,895
10. Watchmen and other village servants	3,894	1,278	47	2,569
Total, Suborder 3	73,213	18,978	47	54,188
Total, Order I.	149,381	48,367	224	100,790
ORDER II.—DEFENCE.				
Suborder 4.—Army.				
11. Military officers	456	229	—	227
12. Non-commissioned officers and privates	10,896	8,789	—	2,107
13. Followers	3,342	2,311	10	1,021
14. Military administrative establishments	666	538	—	128
15. Military police, etc.	16,591	11,914	—	4,677
16. Military service, unspecified	1,195	853	7	335
Total, Suborder 4	33,146	24,634	17	8,495
Suborder 5.—Navy and Marine.				
17. Naval officers	99	84	—	15
18. Naval engineers, warrant officers, lighthouse-keepers, and seamen	472	340	—	132
19. Naval administrative staff	220	158	—	62
Total, Suborder 5	791	582	—	209
Total, Order II.	33,937	25,216	17	8,704
ORDER III.—SERVICE OF NATIVE AND FOREIGN STATES.				
Suborder 6.—Civil Officers.				
20. Chiefs, consuls, and officers	772	135	1	636
21. Clerical establishments	3,675	879	—	2,796
22. Menials and unspecified	3,967	1,320	—	2,647
Total, Suborder 6	8,414	2,334	1	6,079

TABLE III.—Continued.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS A.—GOVERNMENT,—concluded.				
ORDER III.—SERVICE OF NATIVE AND FOREIGN STATES,—concluded.				
Suborder 7.—Military.				
23. Officers	11	4	—	7
24. Privates, etc.	53	43	1	9
Total, Suborder 7	64	47	1	16
Total, Order III.	8,478	2,381	2	6,095
Total, Class A.	191,796	75,964	243	115,589
CLASS B.—PASTURE AND AGRI- CULTURE.				
ORDER IV.—PROVISION AND CARE OF ANIMALS.				
Suborder 8.—Stock Breeding and Dealing.				
25. Horse, mule, and ass breeders, dealers, and attendants	2,228	854	82	1,292
26. Cattle breeders and dealers and Commissa- riat farm establishment	25,508	9,147	2,715	13,646
27. Herdsmen	46,463	28,861	5,900	11,702
28. Elephant catchers	91	41	10	40
29. Camel breeders, dealers, and attendants . .	243	12	1	230
30. Sheep and goat breeders and dealers . . .	2,721	1,074	407	1,240
31. Shepherds and goatherds	1,135	454	193	488
32. Pig breeders and dealers and swineherds . .	11,206	3,147	2,223	5,836
Total, Suborder 8	89,595	43,590	11,531	34,474
Suborder 9.—Training and Care of Animals.				
33. Veterinary surgeons, farriers, etc.	726	334	6	386
34. Horse and elephant trainers, etc.	446	203	27	216
35. Vermin and animal catchers	6,415	1,678	1,153	3,584
Total, Suborder 9	7,587	2,215	1,186	4,186
Total, Order IV.	97,182	45,805	12,717	38,660
ORDER V.—AGRICULTURE.				
Suborder 10.—Land-holders and Tenants.				
36. Rent receivers	713,508	184,466	101,716	427,326
37. Rent payers	4,245	1,089	1,309	1,847
Total, Suborder 10	717,753	185,555	103,025	429,173
Suborder 11.—Agricultural Labourers.				
38. Farm servants	752	390	149	213
39. Field labourers	4,322,120	1,205,557	621,202	2,495,361
40. Taungya or jhum cultivators	1,416,651	379,838	198,228	838,585
Total, Suborder 11	5,739,523	1,585,785	819,579	3,334,159
Suborder 12.—Growers of Special Products.				
41. Cinchona plantations: owners, managers, and superior staff	9	7	—	2
42. Cinchona plantations: labourers and other subordinates	62	27	6	29

TABLE III.—Continued.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS B.—PASTURE AND AGRICULTURE, —concluded.				
ORDER V.—AGRICULTURE,—concluded.				
Suborder 12— <i>Growers of Special Products,—</i> concluded.				
43. Coffee plantations: owners, managers, and superior staff	37	13	2	22
44. Coffee plantations: labourers and other sub- ordinates	199	71	24	104
45. Indigo plantations and factories: owners, man- agers, and superior staff	42	18	2	22
46. Indigo plantations and factories: labourers and other subordinates	188	91	39	58
47. Tea plantations: owners, managers, and su- perior staff	269	115	43	111
48. Tea plantations: labourers and other subordi- nates	20,314	6,170	5,628	8,516
49. Betel-vine and areca-nut growers	43,018	10,938	7,000	25,080
50. Cardamom and pepper growers	7,682	1,804	1,054	4,824
51. Coconut growers	600	181	104	315
52. Fruit and vegetable growers	310,314	88,259	68,159	153,896
53. Miscellaneous	2,794	591	1,539	664
Total, Suborder 12	385,528	108,285	83,600	193,643
Suborder 13.— <i>Agricultural Training and</i> <i>Supervision and Forests.</i>				
54. Director of agriculture and other staff	731	78	4	649
55. Agricultural chemists and experts	157	87	—	70
56. Agents and managers of landed estates (not planters)	2,090	623	557	910
57. Clerks, bailiffs, petty rent collectors, etc. . .	837	289	202	346
58. Forest officers	191	71	—	120
59. Forest rangers, guards, peons	3,953	1,418	35	2,500
Total, Suborder 13	7,959	2,566	798	4,595
Total, Order V.	6,850,763	1,882,191	1,007,002	3,961,570
Total, Class B.	6,947,945	1,927,996	1,019,719	4,000,230
CLASS C.—PERSONAL SERVICES.				
ORDER VI.—PERSONAL HOUSEHOLD AND SANITARY SERVICES.				
Suborder 14.— <i>Personal and Domestic Service.</i>				
60. Barbers	3,293	2,347	213	733
61. Cooks	16,906	7,078	5,203	4,625
62. Door-keepers, durwans, etc.	7,164	4,887	345	1,932
63. Grooms, syces, coachmen, dog-boys, etc. . .	7,871	5,287	98	2,486
64. Indoor servants, butlers, table servants, and dressing boys, ayahs, nurses, and punka- pullers	15,952	7,278	3,294	5,380
65. Washermen	8,873	4,401	1,499	2,973
66. Water-carriers, bhisties	10,126	5,311	1,602	3,213
67. Shampooers	10,637	2,511	3,940	4,186
68. Miscellaneous and unspecified	8,944	4,583	1,794	2,567
Total, Suborder 14	89,766	43,683	17,988	28,095

TABLE III.—Continued.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS C.—PERSONAL SERVICES,—concluded.				
ORDER VI.—PERSONAL, HOUSEHOLD, AND SANITARY SERVICES,—concluded.				
Suborder 15.—Non-domestic Entertainment.				
69. Hotel, lodging-house, bar, or refreshment-room keepers	8,565	3,034	1,237	4,294
70. Rest-house, serai, bath-house, etc., owners and managers	1,075	332	323	420
71. Club secretaries, stewards, etc., club and hotel servants	403	218	13	172
Total, Suborder 15	10,043	3,584	1,573	4,886
Suborder 16.—Sanitation.				
72. Sanitary Officers of Government and establishments	110	51	2	57
73. Sanitary Inspectors, etc., Local and Municipal	108	48	1	59
74. Sweepers and scavengers	3,901	2,185	806	1,410
75. Dust and sweeping contractors	324	97	17	210
Total, Suborder 16	4,443	2,381	326	1,736
Total, Order VI.	104,252	49,648	19,887	34,717
Total, Class C.	104,252	49,648	19,887	34,717
CLASS D.—PREPARATION AND SUPPLY OF MATERIAL SUBSTANCES.				
ORDER VII.—FOOD, DRINK, AND STIMULANTS.				
Suborder 17.—Provision of Animal Food.				
76. Butchers and slaughterers	9,517	2,537	1,688	5,292
77. Cheese makers and sellers	257	53	25	179
78. Cow and buffalo keepers and milk and butter sellers	6,731	3,521	791	2,419
79. Fishermen and fish curers	126,651	39,715	14,350	72,586
80. Fish dealers	77,144	14,484	25,527	37,133
81. Fowl and egg dealers	3,584	1,257	639	1,688
82. Ghee preparers and sellers	523	146	120	257
83. Collectors of edible birds'-nests	29	26	—	3
84. Miscellaneous	347	120	111	116
Total, Suborder 17	224,783	61,859	43,251	119,673
Suborder 18.—Provision of Vegetable Food.				
85. Biscuit factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	53	20	3	30
86. Biscuit factories: operatives and other subordinates	20	5	6	9
87. Flour mills: owners, managers, and superior staff	71	11	11	49
88. Flour mills: operatives and other subordinates	52	23	15	14
89. Oil mills: owners, managers, and superior staff	628	173	57	398
90. Oil mills: operatives and other subordinates	1,554	703	104	747
91. Rice mills: owners, managers, and superior staff	3,390	1,461	68	1,861

TABLE III.—Continued.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS D.—PREPARATION AND SUPPLY OF MATERIAL SUBSTANCES,—continued.				
ORDER VII.—FOOD, DRINK, AND STIMULANTS,—continued.				
Suborder 18.—Provision of Vegetable Food,—concluded.				
92. Rice mills: operatives and other subordinates,	47,191	36,240	2,088	8,863
93. Sugar factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	144	73	10	61
94. Sugar factories: operatives and other subordinates	93	25	36	32
95. Bakers	2,205	968	325	912
96. Flour grinders	594	326	102	166
97. Grain and pulse dealers	78,489	20,010	18,049	40,430
98. Grain parchers	142	40	25	77
99. Makers of sugar, molasses, and gur by hand,	19,487	2,304	12,157	5,026
100. Oil pressers	5,382	1,776	714	2,892
101. Oil sellers	25,259	6,807	6,773	11,679
102. Rice pounders and huskers	50,039	6,604	25,522	17,913
103. Sweetmeat makers	4,637	1,048	1,352	2,237
104. Sweetmeat sellers	96,361	17,486	36,565	42,310
105. Vegetable and fruit sellers	53,191	9,838	20,732	22,621
106. Miscellaneous	156,802	28,968	54,614	73,230
Total, Suborder 18	545,784	134,899	179,328	231,557
Suborder 19.—Provision of Drink, Condiments, and Stimulants.				
107. Aerated water factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	509	148	135	226
108. Aerated water factories: workmen and other subordinates	314	125	95	94
109. Breweries: owners, managers, and superior staff	77	17	31	29
110. Breweries: workmen and other subordinates,	48	12	13	23
111. Distilleries: owners, managers, and superior staff	69	39	—	30
112. Distilleries: operatives and other subordinates	308	283	6	19
113. Opium factories: managers and superior staff,	2	—	2	—
114. Opium factories: workmen and other subordinates	3	2	1	—
115. Ice factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	102	38	11	53
116. Ice factories: workmen and other subordinates	92	53	10	29
117. Salt stores: owners, managers, and superior staff	134	65	14	55
118. Salt stores: workmen and other subordinates,	42	10	26	6
119. Tobacco factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	84	27	19	38
120. Tobacco factories: workmen and other subordinates	212	72	66	74
121. Water works: managers and superior staff	115	42	14	59
122. Water works: workmen and other subordinates	151	56	44	51

TABLE III.—Continued.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS D.—PREPARATION AND SUPPLY OF MATERIAL SUBSTANCES,— <i>continued.</i>				
ORDER VII.—FOOD, DRINK, AND STIMULANTS,— <i>concluded.</i>				
<i>Suborder 19.—Provision of Drink, Condiments, and Stimulants,—concluded.</i>				
123. Cardamom, betel-leaf, and areca-nut sellers .	37,773	8,092	10,909	18,772
124. Grocers and general condiment dealers and staff	9,880	2,747	2,421	4,712
125. Opium, bhang, ganja, etc., preparers	753	208	222	323
126. Opium, bhang, ganja, etc., sellers	441	192	49	200
127. Salt makers	5,378	1,564	1,024	2,790
128. Salt sellers	7,766	1,709	1,837	4,220
129. Tobacco makers	30,008	7,318	8,190	14,500
130. Tobacco and snuff sellers	39,711	7,227	14,244	18,240
131. Toddy drawers	70,918	21,725	2,403	46,790
132. Toddy sellers	3,167	1,143	318	1,706
133. Wine and spirit distillers	320	92	71	157
134. Wine and spirit sellers	2,206	813	362	1,031
135. Miscellaneous (aerated water sellers, tea and coffee stall keepers, venders of iced drinks, etc.)	5,550	2,298	1,447	1,805
Total, Suborder 19	216,133	56,117	43,984	116,032
Total, Order VII.	986,700	252,875	266,563	467,262
ORDER VIII.—LIGHT, FIRING, AND FORAGE.				
<i>Suborder 20.—Lighting.</i>				
136. Gas-works: owners, managers, and superior staff	27	24	—	3
137. Gas-works: operatives and other subordi- nates	9	5	—	4
138. Match factories: owners, managers, and su- perior staff	4	1	—	3
139. Match factories: operatives and other subor- dinates	34	17	4	13
140. Petroleum refineries: owners, managers, and superior staff	174	58	42	74
141. Petroleum refineries: workmen and other subordinates	3,330	1,025	800	1,505
142. Petroleum and kerosene oil dealers	4,044	1,536	714	1,794
143. Pressers of vegetable oil for lighting	239	131	60	48
144. Sellers of vegetable oil for lighting	895	329	236	330
145. Match, candle, torch, lamp, lantern makers and sellers, etc.	657	185	131	341
Total, Suborder 20	9,413	3,311	1,987	4,115
<i>Suborder 21.—Fuel and Forage.</i>				
146. Collieries: owners, managers, and superior staff	29	17	3	9
147. Collieries: miners and other subordinates .	199	105	9	85
148. Coal dealers, brokers, company managers, etc.	324	155	36	133
149. Hay, grass, and fodder sellers	4,515	1,269	1,127	2,119
150. Firewood, charcoal, and cowdung sellers . .	18,731	6,340	3,307	9,084
Total, Suborder 21	23,798	7,886	4,482	11,430
Total, Order VIII.	33,211	11,197	6,469	15,545

TABLE III.—*Continued.*

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS D.—PREPARATION AND SUPPLY OF MATERIAL SUBSTANCES,— <i>continued.</i>				
ORDER IX.—BUILDINGS.				
<i>Suborder 22.—Building Materials.</i>				
151. Brick and tile factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	60	30	9	21
152. Brick and tile factories: operatives and other subordinates	158	34	71	53
153. Stone and marble works: owners, managers, and superior staff	74	28	13	33
154. Stone and marble works: labourers and other subordinates	133	79	13	41
155. Brick and tile makers	7,075	3,759	591	2,725
156. Brick and tile sellers	375	110	69	196
157. Lime, chunam, and shell burners	2,282	592	262	1,428
158. Lime, chunam, and shell sellers	1,243	306	243	694
159. Thatch dealers	3,301	780	1,330	1,191
160. Cement works: owners, managers, and su- perior staff	55	19	19	17
161. Cement works: operatives and other subor- dinates	336	61	127	148
Total, Suborder 22	15,092	5,798	2,747	6,547
<i>Suborder 23.—Artificers in Building.</i>				
162. Building contractors	521	178	68	275
163. Masons and builders (bricklayers, etc.) . . .	9,847	4,334	474	5,039
164. Painters, plumbers, and glaziers	2,291	814	373	1,104
165. Thatchers	30,645	7,324	10,309	13,012
166. Stone and marble workers (not in factories), subordinates	2,310	830	631	849
Total, Suborder 23	45,614	13,480	11,855	20,279
Total, Order IX.	60,706	19,278	14,602	26,826
ORDER X.—VEHICLES AND VESSELS.				
<i>Suborder 24.—Railway and Tramway Plant.</i>				
167. Railway and tramway factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	59	20	3	36
168. Railway and tramway factories: operatives and other subordinates	421	138	15	268
Total Suborder 24	480	158	18	304
<i>Suborder 25.—Carts, Carriages, etc.</i>				
169. Coach building factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	7	3	2	2
170. Coach building factories: operatives and other subordinates	25	7	3	15
171. Cart, cycle, and carriage makers and repair- ers	5,946	2,122	384	3,440
172. Cart, cycle, and carriage sellers	1,208	238	472	498
173. Painters of carriages, etc.	297	123	25	149
174. Palki, dandi, rickshaw makers and sellers . .	68	20	3	45
Total, Suborder 25	7,551	2,513	889	4,149

TABLE III.—Continued.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS D.—PREPARATION AND SUPPLY OF MATERIAL SUBSTANCES,— <i>continued.</i>				
ORDER X.—VEHICLES AND VESSELS,— <i>concluded.</i>				
<i>Suborder 26.—Ships and Boats.</i>				
175. Shipwrights, boat builders, etc	5,840	1,980	302	3,558
176. Sail makers	82	46	10	26
177. Ship chandlers and marine-store dealers . .	16	8	—	8
178. Ship and boat painters	50	27	6	17
Total, Suborder 26	5,988	2,061	318	3,609
Total, Order X.	14,019	4,732	1,225	8,062
ORDER XI.—SUPPLEMENTARY REQUIREMENTS.				
<i>Suborder 27.—Paper.</i>				
179. Paper mills: owners, managers, and superior staff	31	10	2	19
180. Paper mills: operatives and other subordi- nates	414	116	84	214
181. Paper makers and sellers and palm-leaf binders	1,418	314	435	669
182. Stationers	1,101	341	212	548
Total, Suborder 27	2,964	781	733	1,450
<i>Suborder 28.—Books and Prints.</i>				
183. Printing-presses: owners, managers, and su- perior staff	261	90	11	160
184. Printing-presses: workmen and other subor- dinates	2,151	836	44	1,271
185. Hand-presses: proprietors, lithographers, and printers	393	157	21	215
186. Book-binders and duffries (except Govern- ment)	665	247	32	386
187. Booksellers, book agents, and publishers . .	285	71	76	138
188. Newspaper proprietors: managers and sellers, and	131	86	3	42
189. Print and picture dealers	91	39	13	39
Total, Suborder 28	3,977	1,526	200	2,251
<i>Suborder 29.—Watches, Clocks, and Scientific Instruments.</i>				
190. Watch and clock makers	810	289	31	490
191. Watch and clock sellers and opticians . . .	284	153	15	116
192. Photographic apparatus dealers	96	35	5	56
193. Other scientific instrument makers, menders, and sellers	20	10	1	9
Total, Suborder 29	1,210	487	52	671
<i>Suborder 30.—Carving and Engraving.</i>				
194. Wood and ebony carvers	855	377	41	437
195. Ivory carvers	58	14	11	33
196. Cotton stamp makers and sellers	23	13	3	7
197. Turners and lacquerers	14,274	4,277	2,072	7,925
198. Die-sinkers and seal, etc., engravers	97	43	17	37
199. Type foundry	72	29	7	36
200. Mica, flint, and talc workers and sellers . .	9	7	2	—
201. Mosaic and alabaster workers and sellers . .	16	10	1	5
Total, Suborder 30	15,404	4,770	2,154	8,480

TABLE III.—*Continued.*

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS D.—PREPARATION AND SUPPLY OF MATERIAL SUBSTANCES,— <i>continued.</i>				
ORDER XI.—SUPPLEMENTARY REQUIREMENTS,— <i>continued.</i>				
<i>Suborder 31.—Toys and Curiosities.</i>				
202. Toy, kite, and cage makers and sellers . . .	508	131	169	208
203. Hukka stem makers and sellers	41	10	6	25
204. Papier-maché workers and sellers	95	41	20	34
205. Curiosity dealers	49	27	10	12
Total, Suborder 31	693	209	205	279
<i>Suborder 32.—Music and Musical Instruments.</i>				
206. Music and musical instrument makers . .	231	79	71	81
207. Music and musical instrument sellers . . .	115	54	18	43
Total, Suborder 32	346	133	89	124
<i>Suborder 33.—Bangles, Necklaces, Beads, Sacred Threads, etc.</i>				
208. Makers of bangles other than glass	125	33	—	92
209. Sellers of bangles other than glass	38	18	4	16
210. Makers of glass bangles	507	257	16	234
211. Sellers of glass bangles	425	211	65	149
212. Imitation and pewter jewelry makers . . .	151	41	51	59
213. Sellers of imitation and pewter jewelry . .	709	292	97	320
214. Rosary, bead, and necklace makers	644	204	141	299
215. Rosary, bead, and necklace sellers	2,413	636	397	1,380
216. Flower garland and imitation flower makers and sellers	1,186	362	305	519
217. Makers and sellers of spangles, lingams, and sacred threads	69	18	16	35
Total, Suborder 33	6,267	2,072	1,092	3,103
<i>Suborder 34.—Furniture.</i>				
218. Furniture factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	5	4	—	1
219. Furniture factories: operatives and other subordinates	25	4	16	5
220. Furniture makers, hand industry	294	101	40	153
221. Furniture sellers	137	55	13	69
Total, Suborder 34	461	164	69	228
<i>Suborder 35.—Harness.</i>				
222. Harness (not leather) makers and sellers . .	978	297	130	551
223. Saddle-cloth makers, embroiderers, and sellers	84	23	12	49
224. Whip, goad, and walking-stick, etc., makers, and sellers	100	46	17	37
Total, Suborder 35	1,162	366	159	637

TABLE III.—Continued.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS D.—PREPARATION AND SUPPLY OF MATERIAL SUBSTANCES,— <i>continued.</i>				
ORDER XI.—SUPPLEMENTARY REQUIREMENTS,— <i>concluded.</i>				
<i>Suborder 36.—Tools and Machinery.</i>				
225. Machinery and engineering workshops: own- ers, managers, and superior staff	36	10	—	26
226. Machinery and engineering workshops: op- eratives and other subordinates	2,465	1,405	1	1,059
227. Knife and tool makers	328	105	75	148
228. Knife and tool sellers	667	274	64	329
229. Knife and tool grinders	488	171	56	261
230. Plough and agricultural implement makers	49	18	4	27
231. Looms and loom-comb makers and sellers	2,807	688	751	1,368
232. Mechanics other than railway mechanics	935	380	4	551
233. Machinery dealers, etc.	228	48	56	124
234. Sugar-press makers	46	19	6	21
Total, Suborder 36	8,049	3,118	1,017	3,914
<i>Suborder 37.—Arms and Ammunition.</i>				
235. Arms and ammunition factories: superior staff	4	3	—	1
236. Arms and ammunition factories: operatives and other subordinates	28	26	2	—
237. Arsenal: superior staff	2	1	—	1
238. Arsenal: operatives and other subordinates, 239. Gunpowder factories: superior staff	174	64	—	110
240. Gunpowder factories: operatives and other subordinates	20	13	4	3
241. Gun-carriage factories: managers and supe- rior staff	6	4	—	2
242. Gun-carriage factories: workmen and other subordinates	25	25	—	—
243. Gun makers, menders, and sellers	8	7	1	—
244. Ammunition, gunpowder, and firework mak- ers	74	4	—	70
245. Ammunition, gunpowder, and firework sell- ers	6	4	—	2
246. Makers of swords, spears, and other weapons, 247. Sellers of swords, spears, and other weapons,	12	5	1	6
	619	210	102	307
	370	132	103	135
Total, Suborder 37	1,348	498	213	637
Total, Order XI.	41,881	14,124	5,983	21,774
ORDER XII.—TEXTILE FABRICS AND DRESS.				
<i>Suborder 38.—Wool and Fur.</i>				
248. Carpet weavers	46	9	2	35
249. Shawl weavers	78	27	3	48
250. Felt and pashm workers	93	43	5	45
251. Persons occupied with blankets, woollen cloth and yarn, fur, feathers, and natural wool (workers)	95	37	3	55

TABLE III.—Continued.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS D.—PREPARATION AND SUPPLY OF MATERIAL SUBSTANCES,— <i>continued.</i>				
ORDER XII.—TEXTILE FABRICS AND DRESS,— <i>continued.</i>				
<i>Suborder 38.—Wool and Fur,—concluded.</i>				
252. Wool carders	197	122	6	69
253. Wool dyers	42	14	7	21
254. Dealers in woollen goods, fur, and feathers,	88	43	4	41
Total, Suborder 38	639	295	30	314
<i>Suborder 39.—Silk.</i>				
255. Silk filatures: owners, managers, and super- rior staff	14	3	—	11
256. Silk filatures: operatives and other subordi- nates	15	3	1	11
257. Silk mills: owners, managers, and superior staff	32	17	1	14
258. Silk mills: operatives and other subordinates,	14	—	—	14
259. Silkworm rearers and cocoon gatherers	25	10	2	13
260. Silk carders, spinners, and weavers; makers of silk braid and thread	34,029	5,973	18,316	9,740
261. Sellers of raw silk, silk cloth, braid, and thread	4,910	1,403	1,068	2,439
262. Silk dyers	5,307	1,742	1,520	2,045
Total, Suborder 39	44,346	9,151	20,908	14,287
<i>Suborder 40.—Cotton.</i>				
263. Cotton ginning, cleaning, and pressing mills: owners, managers, and superior staff	154	31	10	113
264. Cotton ginning, cleaning, and pressing mills: operatives and other subordinates	393	179	85	129
265. Thread glazing and polishing factories: own- ers, managers, and superior staff	48	7	12	29
266. Thread glazing and polishing factories: oper- atives and other subordinates	26	3	12	11
267. Cotton spinning, weaving, and other mills: owners, managers, and superior staff	55	16	26	13
268. Cotton spinning, weaving, and other mills: operatives and other subordinates	52	17	21	14
269. Tent factories: owners and managers and superior staff	10	5	5	—
270. Tent factories: operatives and other subor- dinates	94	22	15	57
271. Cotton cleaners, pressers, and ginners by hand	2,557	394	1,251	912
272. Cotton weavers, hand industry	189,718	9,392	136,628	43,698
273. Cotton carpet and rug makers	129	24	76	29
274. Cotton carpet and rug sellers	364	74	134	156
275. Cotton spinners, sizers, and yarn beaters . .	53,417	4,461	42,137	6,819
276. Cotton yarn and thread sellers	4,169	962	953	2,254
277. Calendarers, fullers, and printers	122	46	49	27

TABLE III.—Continued.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS D.—PREPARATION AND SUPPLY OF MATERIAL SUBSTANCES,— <i>continued.</i>				
ORDER XII.—TEXTILE FABRICS AND DRESS,— <i>concluded.</i>				
<i>Suborder 40.—Cotton,—concluded.</i>				
278. Cotton dyers	766	142	388	236
279. Tape makers	148	34	61	53
280. Tape sellers	1,598	1,123	234	241
281. Tent makers	64	21	10	33
282. Tent sellers	23	4	11	8
Total, Suborder 40	253,907	16,957	182,118	54,832
<i>Suborder 41.—Jute, Hemp, Flax, Coir, etc.</i>				
283. Jute presses: owners, managers, and superior staff	6	3	—	3
284. Jute presses: operatives and other subordinates	69	32	3	34
285. Jute mills: owners, managers, and superior staff	3	2	—	1
286. Jute mills: operatives and other subordinates,	1	—	1	—
287. Rope works: owners, managers, and superior staff	30	19	3	8
288. Rope works: operatives and other subordinates	68	24	1	43
289. Dealers in raw fibres	247	149	13	85
290. Rope, sacking, and net makers	7,430	2,086	2,113	3,231
291. Rope, sacking, and net sellers	948	308	190	450
292. Fibre matting and bag makers	703	152	319	232
293. Fibre matting and bag sellers	93	36	11	46
Total, Suborder 41	9,598	2,811	2,654	4,133
<i>Suborder 42.—Dress.</i>				
294. Clothing agencies: managers and superior staff	15	8	—	7
295. Clothing agencies: operatives and other subordinates	129	11	83	35
296. Hosiery factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	72	15	11	46
297. Hosiery factories: operatives and other subordinates	31	14	5	12
298. Umbrella factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	639	231	132	276
299. Umbrella factories: operatives and other subordinates	1,128	395	157	576
300. Umbrella sellers	2,222	543	840	839
301. Embroiderers and lace and muslin makers	77	34	20	23
302. Hat, cap, and turban makers, binders, and sellers	3,895	1,224	850	1,821
303. Hosiers and haberdashers	322	186	58	78
304. Piece-goods dealers	31,208	12,038	4,750	14,420
305. Makers of shoes (not leather)	12,864	5,217	2,040	5,607
306. Tailors, milliners, dressmakers, and darners,	57,915	17,158	19,664	21,093
Total, Suborder 42	110,517	37,074	28,610	44,833
Total, Order XII.	419,007	66,288	234,320	118,399

TABLE III.—Continued.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS 'D.—PREPARATION AND SUPPLY OF MATERIAL SUBSTANCES,—continued.				
ORDER XIII.—METALS AND PRECIOUS STONES.				
Suborder 43.—Gold, Silver, and Precious Stones.				
307. Mints: managers and superior staff	53	43	3	7
308. Mints: operatives and other subordinates	14	7	1	6
309. Gold mines: owners, managers, and superior staff	71	40	2	29
310. Gold mines: operatives and other subordinates	319	69	164	86
311. Jade miners	380	297	8	75
312. Goldsmiths' dust washers	609	278	50	281
313. Enamellers	57	29	7	21
314. Electro-platers	149	85	11	53
315. Dealers in plate and plate ware	140	74	12	54
316. Gold and silver wire drawers and braid makers	351	125	43	183
317. Workers in gold, silver, and precious stones (including jade)	42,112	15,775	3,861	22,476
318. Dealers in gold, silver, and precious stones (including jade)	11,800	4,716	669	6,415
319. Pearl divers	385	100	41	244
Total, Suborder 43	56,440	21,638	4,872	29,930
Suborder 44.—Brass, Copper, and Bell-metal.				
320. Brass foundries: owners, managers, and superior staff	12	1	1	10
321. Brass foundries: operatives and other subordinates	34	13	3	18
322. Brass, copper, and bell-metal workers	3,287	1,150	422	1,715
323. Brass, copper, and bell-metal sellers	743	211	21	511
Total, Suborder 44	4,076	1,375	447	2,254
Suborder 45.—Tin, Zinc, Quicksilver, and Lead.				
324. Workers in tin, zinc, quicksilver, and lead	5,135	2,158	217	2,760
325. Sellers of tin, zinc, quicksilver, and lead goods,	156	66	12	78
Total, Suborder 45	5,291	2,224	229	2,838
Suborder 46.—Iron and Steel.				
326. Iron foundries: owners, managers, and superior staff	157	66	24	67
327. Iron foundries: operatives and other subordinates	916	494	22	400
328. Workers in iron and hardware	26,221	9,580	1,017	15,624
329. Sellers of iron and hardware	1,622	629	85	908
Total, Suborder 46	28,916	10,769	1,148	16,999
Total, Order XIII.	94,723	36,006	6,696	52,021

TABLE III.—Continued.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS D.—PREPARATION AND SUPPLY OF MATERIAL SUBSTANCES,—continued.				
ORDER XIV.—GLASS, EARTHEN AND STONE WARE.				
[Suborder 47.—Glass and China Ware.				
330. Glass factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	23	9	3	11
331. Glass factories: operatives and other subordinates	5	2	1	2
332. Makers of glass and china ware other than bangles	250	59	14	177
333. Sellers of glass and china ware other than bangles	1,926	668	296	962
Total, Suborder 47	2,204	738	314	1,152
Suborder 48.—Earthen and Stone Ware.				
334. Pottery works: owners, managers, and superior staff	112	64	2	46
335. Pottery works: operatives and other subordinates	21	13	1	7
336. Potters and pot and pipe-bowl makers	19,667	4,438	6,623	8,606
337. Sellers of pottery ware	6,963	1,550	2,251	3,162
338. Grindstone and millstone makers and menders	4,195	1,333	435	2,427
339. Grindstone and millstone sellers	1,127	353	90	684
Total, Suborder 48	32,085	7,751	9,402	14,932
Total, Order XIV.	34,289	8,489	9,716	16,084
ORDER XV.—WOOD, CANES, AND LEAVES, ETC.				
Suborder 49.—Wood and Bamboos.				
340. Carpentry works: owners, managers, and superior staff	201	75	23	103
341. Carpentry works: operatives and other subordinates	297	197	3	97
342. Sawmills: owners, managers, and superior staff	1,139	444	21	674
343. Sawmills: workmen and other subordinates,	6,945	4,888	117	1,940
344. Carpenters, joiners, coopers, box-makers, etc.,	69,886	27,755	1,848	40,283
345. Dealers in timber and bamboos	15,529	5,139	882	9,508
346. Wood cutters and sawyers	65,279	23,738	2,871	38,670
Total, Suborder 49	159,276	62,236	5,765	91,275
Suborder 50.—Cane-work, Matting and Leaves, etc.				
347. Basket, mat, fan, screen, broom, etc., makers and sellers	53,585	16,001	12,692	24,892
348. Comb and toothstick makers and sellers	921	358	145	418
349. Leaf-plate makers and sellers	851	260	219	372
Total, Suborder 50	55,357	16,619	13,056	25,682
Total, Order XV.	214,633	78,855	18,821	116,957

TABLE III.—Continued.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS D.—PREPARATION AND SUPPLY OF MATERIAL SUBSTANCES,— <i>continued.</i>				
ORDER XVI.—DRUGS, GUMS, DYES, ETC.				
<i>Suborder 51.—Gums, Wax, Resins, and Similar Forest Produce.</i>				
350. Cutch factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	32	11	3	18
351. Cutch factories: operatives and other subordinates	9	6	—	3
352. Lac factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	80	69	3	8
353. Lac factories: operatives and other subordinates	139	2	28	109
354. Camphor, gum, and India-rubber collectors,	62	44	3	15
355. Camphor, gum, and India-rubber sellers	113	47	5	61
356. Catechu preparers	3,544	1,037	257	2,250
357. Catechu sellers	1,111	455	134	522
358. Lac collectors	108	65	10	33
359. Lac sellers	84	35	5	44
360. Wax, honey, and forest produce collectors and sellers	566	142	193	231
Total, Suborder 51	5,848	1,913	641	3,294
<i>Suborder 52.—Drugs, Dyes, Pigments, etc.</i>				
361. Chemical factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	15	8	1	6
362. Chemical factories: operatives and other subordinates	6	6	—	—
363. Soap factories: owners, managers, and superior staff	9	6	1	2
364. Soap factories: operatives and other subordinates	40	7	9	24
365. Saltpetre refiners	41	19	8	14
366. Saltpetre sellers	483	91	263	129
367. Dye-works: owners, managers, and superior staff	86	31	27	28
368. Dye-works: operatives and other subordinates	268	108	20	140
369. Chemists and druggists	236	98	44	94
370. Borax refiners	27	22	1	4
371. Borax sellers	92	70	9	13
372. Soap sellers	485	104	146	235
373. Antimony preparers and sellers	70	17	8	45
374. Madder, saffron, and logwood workers and dealers	78	10	38	30
375. Ink makers and sellers	73	14	30	29
376. Perfume, incense, and sandalwood preparers,	171	58	28	85
377. Perfume, incense, and sandalwood sellers	789	315	113	361
378. Persons occupied with miscellaneous drugs	4,635	1,277	846	2,512
379. Persons occupied with miscellaneous dyes	240	91	37	112
Total, Suborder 52	7,844	2,352	1,629	3,863
Total, Order XVI.	13,692	4,265	2,270	7,157

TABLE III.—Continued.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS D.—PREPARATION AND SUPPLY OF MATERIAL SUBSTANCES,—concluded.				
ORDER XVII.—LEATHER.				
Suborder 53.—Leather, Horn, and Bones, etc.				
380. Bone mills: owners, managers, and superior staff	19	9	2	8
381. Bone mills: operatives and other subordi- nates	51	13	2	36
382. Brush factories: owners, managers, and su- perior staff	34	17	3	14
383. Brush factories: operatives and other subor- dinates	17	6	—	11
384. Tanneries and leather factories: owners, man- agers, and superior staff	65	33	8	24
385. Tanneries and leather factories: operatives	42	3	8	31
386. Leather dyers	116	37	17	62
387. Shoe, boot, and sandal makers	5,635	2,602	538	2,495
388. Tanners and curriers	482	179	48	255
389. Sellers of manufactured leather goods	551	199	116	236
390. Sellers of hides, horns, bristles, and bones,	2,231	743	150	1,338
391. Water bag, well bag, bucket, and ghee pot makers	980	289	153	538
Total, Suborder 53	10,223	4,130	1,045	5,048
Total, Order XVII.	10,223	4,130	1,045	5,048
Total, Class D	1,923,084	500,239	567,710	855,135
CLASS E.—COMMERCE, TRANSPORT AND STORAGE.				
ORDER XVIII.—COMMERCE.				
Suborder 54.—Money and Securities.				
392. Bankers, money-lenders, etc.	7,541	3,239	996	3,306
393. Insurance agents and underwriters	85	69	—	16
394. Money changers and testers	276	101	48	127
395. Bank clerks, cashiers, bill collectors, ac- countants, etc.	1,027	350	54	623
Total, Suborder 54	8,929	3,759	1,098	4,072
Suborder 55.—General Merchandise.				
396. General merchants	16,227	4,980	2,650	8,597
397. Merchants, managers, accountants, clerks, assistants, durwans, peons, coolies, etc.,	11,208	5,438	495	5,275
Total, Suborder 55	27,435	10,418	3,145	13,872
Suborder 56.—Dealing Unspecified.				
398. Shopkeepers otherwise unspecified ("trader- ers," "stall-keepers")	155,941	44,462	30,921	80,558
399. Shopkeepers' clerks, salesmen, etc.	1,924	1,016	98	810
400. Shopkeepers' and money-lenders' servants	375	176	10	189
401. Pedlers, hawkers, etc.	2,876	1,107	266	1,503
Total, Suborder 56	161,116	46,761	31,295	83,060

TABLE III.—*Continued.*

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS E.—COMMERCE, TRANSPORT AND STORAGE,— <i>continued.</i>				
ORDER XVIII.—COMMERCE,— <i>concluded.</i>				
<i>Suborder 57.—Middlemen, Brokers, and Agents.</i>				
402. Brokers, agents, commission agents, and commercial travellers	20,133	6,241	679	13,213
403. Auctioneers, auditors, actuaries, notaries public (appraisers, house agents), etc. . .	151	48	2	101
404. Farmers of pounds, tolls, ferries, markets, etc.	1,044	443	79	522
405. Farmers of liquor, opium, etc.	532	225	24	283
406. Contractors for labour, emigration agents, coolie maistries, etc.	4,704	2,135	271	2,298
407. Contractors, otherwise unspecified	5,882	2,088	293	3,501
408. Clerks, employed by coolies, coolie maistries, and middlemen	635	318	27	290
Total, Suborder 57	33,081	11,498	1,375	20,208
Total, Order XVIII.	230,561	72,436	36,913	121,212
ORDER XIX.—TRANSPORT AND STORAGE.				
<i>Suborder 58.—Railway.</i>				
409. Railway agents, directors, managers, and their assistants	152	66	—	86
410. Other administrative railway officials . . .	128	53	—	75
411. Clerical staff on railways	1,653	803	9	841
412. Station masters and assistants, inspectors, overseers, etc.	1,406	480	—	926
413. Guards, drivers, firemen, etc.	1,705	751	1	953
414. Pointsmen, shunters, porters, signallers, etc. .	2,016	1,287	—	729
415. Railways, service unspecified	4,534	3,453	101	980
Total, Suborder 58	11,594	6,893	111	4,590
<i>Suborder 59.—Road.</i>				
416. Tramway, mail carriage, etc., managers, contractors, etc.	97	82	—	15
417. Cart owners and drivers, carting agents, etc.,	71,676	28,797	2,821	40,058
418. Livery stable-keepers, etc.	243	164	7	72
419. Drivers, stable-boys, etc., not private servants	2,747	1,843	82	822
420. Palki, etc., bearers and owners	127	48	5	74
421. Pack-bullock owners, drivers, etc.	186	94	2	90
422. Pack-camel, elephant, mule, etc., owners and drivers	4,230	2,236	102	1,892
Total, Suborder 59	79,306	33,264	3,019	43,023
<i>Suborder 60.—Water.</i>				
423. Ship owners and agents	227	87	4	136
424. Shipping clerks, supercargoes, and stevedores,	1,117	482	1	634
425. Boat and barge owners, etc.	12,527	4,529	510	7,488
426. Dock-yards: owners, managers, and superior staff	92	42	3	47

TABLE III.—*Continued.*

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS E.—COMMERCE, TRANSPORT AND STORAGE,—concluded.				
ORDER XIX.—TRANSPORT AND STORAGE,—concluded.				
Suborder 60.—Water,—concluded.				
427. Dock-yards: workmen and other subordinates,	2,031	1,302	—	729
428. Ships' officers, engineers, mariners, and firemen	9,102	7,668	26	1,408
429. Boat and barge men	88,415	50,121	1,839	36,455
430. Pilots	369	149	2	218
431. Lock-keepers, etc., and canal service.	40	8	4	28
432. Harbour works, harbour service, and divers,	21	16	—	5
Total, Suborder 60	113,941	64,404	2,389	47,148
Suborder 61.—Messages.				
433. Post-office: officers and superior staff . . .	531	169	3	359
434. Post-office: clerks, messengers, runners, and other subordinates	2,527	1,196	43	1,288
435. Telegraph: officers and superior staff . . .	597	220	22	355
436. Telegraph: clerks, signallers, messengers, and other subordinates	1,032	549	12	471
437. Telephone: managers and superior staff . .	75	29	1	45
438. Telephone: clerks, operators, and other subordinates	92	38	3	51
TOTAL, Suborder 61	4,854	2,201	84	2,569
Suborder 62.—Storage and Weighing.				
439. Warehouse: owners, managers, and superior staff	164	77	4	83
440. Warehouse: workmen and other subordinates	513	286	5	222
441. Porters	7,516	4,837	176	2,503
442. Weighmen and measurers	1,396	479	18	899
443. Watchmen employed at stores	110	85	—	25
Total, Suborder 62	19,699	5,764	203	3,732
Total, Order XIX.	219,394	112,526	5,806	101,062
Total, Class E	449,955	184,962	42,719	222,274
CLASS F.—PROFESSIONS.				
ORDER XX.—LEARNED AND ARTISTIC PROFESSIONS.				
Suborder 63.—Religions.				
444. Priests, ministers, preachers, missionaries, etc.	1,017	434	40	543
445. Catechists, readers, church, and mission service, etc.	6,446	2,431	306	3,709
446. Religious mendicants, inmates of monasteries, convents, etc.	138,329	75,365	5,514	57,450
447. Church, temple, masjid, pagoda, ghat, burial or burning ground service, pilgrim conductors, undertakers, etc.	5,424	1,937	585	2,902
448. Circumcisers	594	314	—	280
449. Astrologers, diviners, horoscope makers, etc.	2,238	1,003	53	1,182
450. Almanac makers and sellers	81	35	1	45
Total, Suborder 63	154,129	81,519	6,499	66,111

TABLE III.—Continued.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS F.—PROFESSIONS,—continued.				
ORDER XX.—LEARNED AND ARTISTIC PROFESSIONS,—continued.				
Suborder 64.—Education.				
451. Administrative and inspecting officials . .	423	107	1	315
452. Principals, professors, lecturers, teachers, and munshis	12,178	4,997	768	6,413
453. Clerks (interpreters) and servants connected with education	387	205	14	168
Total, Suborder 64	12,988	5,309	783	6,896
Suborder 65.—Literature.				
454. Authors, editors, journalists, etc.	89	46	1	42
455. Reporters, shorthand writers, etc.	34	20	1	13
456. Writers (unspecified) and private clerks . .	2,488	899	54	1,535
457. Public scribes and copyists	198	69	7	122
458. Service in libraries and literary institutions .	67	21	8	38
Total, Suborder 65	2,876	1,055	71	1,750
Suborder 66.—Law.				
459. Barristers, advocates, and pleaders	3,602	765	1	2,836
460. Solicitors and attorneys	176	73	—	103
461. Law agents, mukhtars, etc.	31	16	—	15
462. Kazis	117	54	—	63
463. Articled clerks and other lawyers' clerks . .	1,887	681	—	1,206
464. Petition writers, touts (law court interpre- ters)	1,284	399	9	876
465. Stamp venders	410	153	17	240
Total, Suborder 66	7,507	2,141	27	5,339
Suborder 67.—Medicine.				
466. Medical administrative and inspecting staff (when not returned under general head),	368	155	5	208
467. Practitioners with diploma, license, or certi- ficate	365	99	6	260
468. Practitioners without diploma, Baid, Ko- biraj, Hakim	43,252	16,175	69	27,008
469. Dentists	144	66	5	73
470. Oculists	106	51	2	53
471. Vaccinators	652	216	2	434
472. Midwives	2,537	198	1,942	397
473. Compounders, matrons, nurses, and hospital, asylum, and dispensary service	1,330	581	108	641
Total, Suborder 67	48,754	17,541	2,139	29,074
Suborder 68.—Engineering and Survey.				
474. Administrative and inspecting staff	54	23	—	31
475. Civil engineers and architects	441	157	—	284
476. Topographical, archæological, and revenue surveyors	769	265	1	503
477. Draughtsmen and operators in Survey and Public Works Department offices, over- seers, etc.	1,780	816	—	964
478. Clerks, etc., in offices of the above	6,182	3,204	7	2,971
Total, Suborder 68	9,226	4,465	8	4,753

TABLE III.—Continued.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS F.—PROFESSIONS,—concluded.				
ORDER XX.—LEARNED AND ARTISTIC PROFESSIONS,—concluded.				
Suborder 69.—Natural Science.				
479. Astronomers and meteorologists and establishments	52	33	—	19
480. Botanists, naturalists, and officers of scientific institutions	26	15	1	10
481. Metallurgists	21	7	—	14
482. Persons occupied with other branches of science	98	49	5	44
Total, Suborder 69	197	104	6	87
Suborder 70.—Pictorial Art, Sculpture, etc.				
483. Painters, superintendents of schools of arts, etc.	4,637	1,796	200	2,641
484. Sculptors	792	338	11	443
485. Photographers	295	125	9	161
486. Tattooers	2,749	986	46	1,717
Total, Suborder 70	8,473	3,245	266	4,962
Suborder 71.—Music, Acting, and Dancing.				
487. Music composers and teachers	101	23	6	72
488. Bandmasters and players (not military)	9,399	4,181	221	4,997
489. Piano-tuners	41	6	2	33
490. Actors, singers, and dancers, and their accompanists	8,582	3,949	944	3,689
Total, Suborder 71	18,123	8,159	1,173	8,791
Total, Order XX.	262,273	123,538	10,972	127,763
ORDER XXI.—SPORT.				
Suborder 72.—Sports.				
491. Race-course service, trainers, book-makers, jockeys, etc.	64	24	—	40
492. Shikaris, falconers, bird-catchers	529	189	73	267
493. Huntsmen, whippers-in	28	17	—	11
Total, Suborder 72	621	230	73	318
Suborder 73.—Games and Exhibitions.				
494. Owners and managers of places of public entertainment	75	28	1	46
495. Persons engaged in service of places of public entertainment	79	40	7	32
496. Exhibitors of trained animals	347	139	31	177
497. Circus owners, managers, etc.	25	15	2	8
498. Conjurors, buffoons, reciters, fortune-tellers, etc.	487	205	55	227
499. Tumblers, acrobats, wrestlers, professional cricketers, billiard-markers, etc.	140	68	3	69
Total, Suborder 73	1,153	495	99	559
Total, Order XXI.	1,774	725	172	877
Total, Class F.	264,047	124,263	11,144	128,640

TABLE III.—*Concluded.*

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

CLASS, ORDER, SUBORDER.	TOTAL.	WORKERS.		Dependents, both sexes.
		Male.	Female.	
CLASS G.—UNSKILLED LABOUR NOT AGRICULTURAL.				
ORDER XXII.—EARTHWORK AND GENERAL LABOUR.				
Suborder 74.—Earthwork, etc.				
500. Well sinkers	474	160	58	256
501. Tank diggers and excavators	429	219	31	179
502. Road, canal, and railway labourers	41,746	21,306	4,499	15,941
503. Miners (unspecified)	280	64	30	186
Total, Suborder 74	42,929	21,749	4,618	16,562
Suborder 75.—General Labour.				
504. General labour. Coolies (unspecified)	392,654	147,888	63,629	181,137
Total, Suborder 75	392,654	147,888	63,629	181,137
Total, Order XXII.	435,583	169,637	68,247	197,699
ORDER XXIII.—INDEFINITE AND DISREPUTABLE OCCUPATIONS.				
Suborder 76.—Indefinite and Disreputable.				
505. Uncertain or not returned (gamblers)	2,261	907	646	708
506. Prostitutes, including saquins and neauchis,	1,510	5	1,162	343
507. Procurers, brothel-keepers, pimps, etc.	902	538	145	219
508. Receivers of stolen goods	100	61	1	38
509. Witches, wizards, cow-poisoners, etc.	656	231	155	270
Total, Suborder 76	5,429	1,742	2,102	1,578
Total, Order XXIII.	5,429	1,742	2,109	1,578
Total, Class G	441,012	171,379	70,356	199,277
CLASS H.—MEANS OF SUBSISTENCE INDEPENDENT OF OCCUPATION.				
ORDER XXIV.—INDEPENDENT.				
Suborder 77.—Property and Alms.				
510. House rent, shares, and other property, not being land	1,988	556	372	1,060
511. Allowances from patrons or relatives	839	269	191	379
512. Educational or other endowments, scholar-ships, etc.	993	356	344	293
513. Mendicancy (not in connection with a religious order)	22,433	7,498	9,343	5,592
Total, Suborder 77	26,253	8,679	10,250	7,324
Suborder 78.—At the State Expense.				
514. Pension, civil services	3,186	838	212	2,136
515. Pension, military services	136	48	36	52
516. Pension, unspecified	143	44	9	90
517. Inmates of asylums, etc.	482	374	23	85
518. Prisoners, under trial	230	218	3	9
519. Prisoners, for debt	35	21	6	8
520. Prisoners, convicted or in reformatories, etc.,	11,057	10,768	137	152
Total, Suborder 78	15,269	12,311	426	2,532
Total, Order XXIV.	41,522	20,990	10,676	9,856
Total, Class H.	41,522	20,990	10,676	9,856
Grand Total	10,363,613	3,055,441	1,742,454	5,565,718

TABLES FROM THE CENSUS OF 1901 381

TABLE IV.

THE LITERACY OF THE POPULATION OF BURMA BY AGE, SEX, AND RELIGION.

AGE AND RELIGION.	POPULATION.								
	Total.			Literate.			Illiterate.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
ALL RELIGIONS:									
0-10 . .	2,750,124	1,363,974	1,386,150	61,241	44,752	16,489	2,688,883	1,319,222	1,369,661
10-15 . .	1,104,513	574,861	529,652	213,701	181,337	32,364	890,812	393,524	497,288
15-20 . .	950,423	461,910	488,513	261,268	223,847	37,421	689,155	238,063	451,092
20 and over	5,558,553	2,881,663	2,676,890	1,687,752	1,547,138	140,614	3,870,801	1,334,525	2,536,276
Total .	10,363,613	5,282,408	5,081,205	2,223,962	1,997,074	226,888	8,130,651	3,285,334	4,854,317
BUDDHIST:									
0-10 . .	2,504,294	1,238,836	1,265,458	56,066	41,604	14,462	2,448,228	1,197,232	1,250,996
10-15 . .	1,004,502	517,988	486,514	202,404	173,555	28,849	802,098	344,433	457,665
15-20 . .	844,556	397,270	447,286	244,184	210,986	33,198	600,372	186,284	414,088
20 and over	4,830,769	2,376,034	2,454,735	1,558,773	1,432,594	126,179	3,271,996	943,440	2,328,556
Total .	9,184,121	4,530,128	4,653,993	2,061,427	1,858,739	202,688	7,122,694	2,671,389	4,451,305
ANIMIST:									
0-10 . .	98,790	49,825	48,965	159	114	45	98,631	49,711	48,920
10-15 . .	38,693	20,555	18,133	362	318	44	38,331	20,237	18,094
15-20 . .	36,451	18,745	17,706	831	773	58	35,620	17,972	17,648
20 and over	225,456	121,162	104,294	9,255	8,931	324	216,201	112,231	103,970
Total .	399,390	210,287	189,103	10,607	10,136	471	388,783	200,151	188,632
HINDU:									
0-10 . .	26,424	14,150	12,274	846	650	196	25,578	13,500	12,078
10-15 . .	13,377	9,595	3,782	2,004	1,783	221	11,373	7,812	3,561
15-20 . .	23,170	19,043	4,127	4,138	3,842	296	19,032	15,201	3,831
20 and over	222,513	194,142	28,371	44,071	42,721	1,350	178,442	151,421	27,021
Total .	285,484	236,930	48,554	51,059	48,996	2,063	234,425	187,934	46,491
MUSALMAN:									
0-10 . .	79,746	40,772	38,974	957	660	297	78,789	40,112	38,677
10-15 . .	31,293	17,937	13,356	2,717	2,153	564	28,576	15,784	12,792
15-20 . .	31,508	19,439	12,069	5,271	4,377	894	26,237	15,062	11,175
20 and over	196,899	141,951	54,948	38,388	35,435	2,953	158,511	106,516	51,995
Total .	339,446	220,099	119,347	47,333	42,625	4,708	292,113	177,474	114,639
CHRISTIAN:									
0-10 . .	40,114	19,966	20,148	3,155	1,685	1,470	36,959	18,281	18,678
10-15 . .	16,477	8,681	7,796	6,132	3,474	2,658	10,345	5,207	5,138
15-20 . .	14,284	7,069	7,215	6,653	3,706	2,947	7,631	3,363	4,268
20 and over	76,650	42,857	33,793	34,042	24,385	9,657	42,608	18,472	24,136
Total .	147,525	78,573	68,952	49,982	33,250	16,732	97,543	45,323	52,220
OTHER RELIGIONS:									
0-10 . .	756	425	331	58	39	19	698	386	312
10-15 . .	171	105	66	82	54	28	89	51	38
15-20 . .	454	344	110	191	163	28	263	181	82
20 and over	6,266	5,517	749	3,223	3,072	151	3,043	2,445	598
Total .	7,647	6,391	1,256	3,554	3,328	226	4,093	3,063	1,030

TABLE V.

LITERACY OF THE POPULATION OF BURMA BY AGE, SEX, AND LANGUAGE.

AGE AND RELIGION.	LITERATE IN											
	Burmese.		Karen.		Shan.		Talaing.		Other Languages.		English.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
ALL RELIGIONS:												
0-10 ..	42,008	14,990	435	312	469	69	132	74	1,179	446	1,383	794
10-15 ..	172,674	30,279	1,127	806	2,594	60	1,055	68	3,410	541	2,815	933
15-20 ..	210,276	34,869	1,239	1,069	2,699	83	1,046	54	7,925	813	4,121	1,028
20 and over	1,426,478	130,252	6,657	3,580	14,632	544	9,262	338	80,717	3,308	23,846	3,867
Total .	1,851,436	210,390	9,458	5,767	20,394	756	11,495	529	93,231	5,108	32,165	6,622
BUDDHIST:												
0-10 ..	40,926	14,251	103	47	458	66	132	74	120	55	411	54
10-15 ..	169,482	28,647	253	94	2,590	58	1,052	62	487	32	1,192	70
15-20 ..	206,430	32,960	242	100	2,680	82	1,041	54	968	57	1,918	82
20 and over	1,403,786	124,611	1,853	443	14,436	531	9,208	325	5,856	352	6,897	236
Total .	1,820,624	200,469	2,451	684	20,164	737	11,433	515	7,431	496	10,418	442
ANIMIST:												
0-10 ..	62	25	15	9	—	—	—	—	35	11	5	—
10-15 ..	179	33	5	—	—	—	—	—	131	10	27	2
15-20 ..	318	41	3	3	3	—	—	—	432	14	56	—
20 and over	2,025	146	17	8	119	—	—	—	6,745	159	229	13
Total .	2,584	245	40	20	122	—	—	—	7,343	194	317	15
HINDU:												
0-10 ..	70	16	—	—	—	—	—	—	526	164	76	16
10-15 ..	188	28	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,381	186	275	15
15-20 ..	313	22	—	—	—	—	1	—	3,228	257	410	19
20 and over	2,662	142	7	—	1	—	33	—	37,619	1,153	3,198	81
Total .	3,233	208	7	—	1	—	34	—	42,754	1,760	3,959	131
MUSALMAN:												
0-10 ..	274	150	—	—	—	—	—	—	380	144	19	6
10-15 ..	883	336	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,216	222	172	6
15-20 ..	1,228	572	—	—	—	—	—	—	3,048	317	334	9
20 and over	8,111	1,623	—	—	12	—	—	—	26,668	1,302	1,861	42
Total .	10,496	2,681	—	—	12	—	—	—	31,312	1,985	2,386	63
CHRISTIAN:												
0-10 ..	672	548	317	256	11	3	—	—	100	71	854	700
10-15 ..	1,986	1,232	869	712	4	2	3	1	176	90	1,119	816
15-20 ..	1,978	1,272	994	966	16	1	4	—	146	158	1,351	902
20 and over	9,813	3,719	4,780	3,129	64	13	21	13	1,160	261	11,306	3,435
Total .	14,399	6,771	6,960	5,063	95	19	28	14	1,582	580	14,630	5,853
OTHER RELIGIONS:												
0-10 ..	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	18	1	18	18
10-15 ..	6	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	19	1	30	24
15-20 ..	9	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	103	10	52	16
20 and over	81	11	—	—	—	—	—	—	2,669	81	355	60
Total .	100	16	—	—	—	—	—	—	2,809	93	455	118

TABLE VI.

LITERACY OF THE POPULATION OF BURMA BY DISTRICTS AND
NATURAL DIVISIONS.

DISTRICT.	NUMBER IN 1,000.			
	Literate.		Illiterate.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Upper Chindwin	530	20	470	980
Katha	399	20	601	980
Myitkyna	286	21	714	979
Ruby Mines	285	25	715	975
Bhamo	224	24	776	976
Northern Shan States	97	3	903	997
Southern Shan States	69	3	931	997
Chin Hills	23	1	977	999
UPPER BURMA, WET	174	9	826	991
Minbu	533	35	467	965
Shwebo	505	19	495	981
Magwe	501	16	499	984
Sagaing	482	30	518	970
Pakokku	468	23	532	977
Myingyan	450	24	550	976
Mandalay (rural)	422	27	578	973
Lower Chindwin	407	18	593	982
Yamethin	391	20	609	980
Kyaukse	354	23	646	977
Meiktila	331	17	669	983
UPPER BURMA, DRY	446	23	554	977
Mandalay City	573	126	427	874
UPPER BURMA	351	22	649	978
Hanthawaddy	483	110	517	890
Thongwa	408	81	532	919
Pegu	450	92	550	908
Myaungmya	428	72	572	928
Bassein	414	75	586	925
Sandoway	343	32	657	968
Kyaukpyu	338	29	662	971
Mergui	333	55	667	945
Tavoy	313	44	687	956
Akyab	286	34	714	966
Amherst	261	56	739	944
Thaton	235	41	765	959
Northern Arakan	55	5	945	995
Salween	51	6	949	994
LOWER BURMA, LITTORAL	373	66	627	934
Thayetmyo	487	38	513	962
Tharrawaddy	484	62	516	938
Henzada	477	54	523	946
Prome	449	41	551	959
Toungoo	356	50	644	950
LOWER BURMA, SUB-DELTAIC	455	50	545	950
Rangoon City	410	268	590	732
LOWER BURMA	399	66	601	934
BURMA, WHOLE	378	45	622	955

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

TABLE VII.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO INFIRMITIES, BY DISTRICTS.

AVERAGE NUMBER OF AFFLICTED PER 100,000.

DISTRICTS AND NATURAL DIVISIONS.	INSANE.		DEAF-MUTES.		BLIND.		LEPERS.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Bhamo	43.3	42.1	142.0	100.0	69.8	81.6	7.2	5.2
Myitkyina	33.0	51.5	22.0	38.6	52.2	93.3	2.7	6.4
Katha	59.9	55.7	46.0	27.8	165.9	186.1	57.6	33.4
Ruby Mines	33.1	15.1	33.1	22.7	126.5	91.1	8.2	2.5
Upper Chindwin	124.4	157.6	115.3	64.6	163.3	182.1	66.1	37.4
Northern Shan States	51.1	59.9	88.0	59.1	198.1	201.2	34.0	25.1
Southern Shan States	27.2	26.8	19.3	11.5	63.6	53.1	17.8	8.9
Chin Hills	363.7	336.1	90.3	38.6	44.0	36.3	67.1	22.7
UPPER BURMA, WET	62.4	65.3	53.2	33.1	109.0	108.0	30.1	17.1
Pakókku	101.8	94.5	93.5	56.3	272.9	318.0	66.7	35.6
Minbu	92.2	79.0	57.3	35.3	187.2	217.2	104.8	54.3
Magwe	33.9	81.5	61.3	49.3	209.8	245.3	99.8	52.5
Mandalay (rural)	62.3	50.5	27.8	20.4	163.7	148.5	67.9	26.9
Shwabo	56.6	45.7	40.2	17.0	164.8	156.3	46.9	26.1
Sagaing	34.0	77.7	33.3	22.5	211.1	211.2	103.7	53.1
Lower Chindwin	63.1	49.8	45.1	22.0	246.0	284.9	93.4	35.6
Kyaukse	75.0	44.4	24.5	30.6	209.1	186.3	41.8	27.8
Meiktila	39.4	45.0	21.8	20.2	101.6	148.5	46.2	27.7
Yamethin	53.2	52.9	28.2	21.9	124.6	151.4	39.0	20.3
Myingyan	80.1	74.1	53.8	40.7	242.1	304.9	150.0	53.9
UPPER BURMA, DRY	73.3	65.5	47.2	31.7	204.6	230.3	81.7	38.8
Akyab	50.3	34.1	27.9	14.0	28.3	20.1	10.0	8.4
Northern Arakan	246.2	148.4	47.4	69.1	426.2	325.9	388.3	227.1
Kyaukpyu	66.6	36.4	20.9	11.3	41.9	31.9	17.2	11.3
Sandoway	56.5	33.3	21.7	8.8	32.6	15.5	10.8	2.2
Hanthawaddy	35.9	21.5	19.1	10.5	76.7	66.5	63.6	21.1
Pegu	20.1	13.4	18.5	8.3	50.2	49.2	43.1	15.9
Bassein	38.2	18.1	23.5	9.0	27.4	20.3	62.2	19.7
Myaungmya	43.4	18.7	27.0	13.8	52.8	54.0	94.3	31.1
Thongwa	54.7	21.9	22.1	16.5	58.9	68.6	64.6	19.2
Salween	10.2	10.8	20.5	5.4	10.2	27.2	15.4
Thaon	15.5	12.2	14.4	8.5	29.9	7.3	18.3	9.7
Amherst	31.7	15.4	12.8	12.4	24.4	17.6	24.4	5.8
Tavoy	23.8	25.2	7.3	12.6	47.6	32.4	9.0	3.6
Mergui	32.4	16.4	17.2	7.0	36.7	21.1	8.6	2.3
LOWER BURMA, LITTO- RAL	39.8	22.1	20.7	11.9	46.2	39.4	44.5	16.1
Tharrawaddy	47.7	23.1	17.9	12.3	62.1	79.1	42.7	11.3
Prome	67.0	37.0	20.6	16.4	118.9	92.6	77.0	21.7
Henzada	63.7	34.5	31.8	16.8	80.7	66.7	81.5	29.2
Toungoo	38.2	25.8	27.8	15.5	77.9	70.0	30.6	6.6
Thayetmyo	64.7	56.3	14.4	14.0	99.2	133.3	47.9	28.1
LOWER BURMA, SUB- DELTAIC	56.8	34.2	23.4	15.2	86.3	84.7	59.0	20.0
BURMA, RURAL	55.6	44.9	33.8	22.1	106.4	117.5	54.6	23.9
Rangoon Town	226.5	96.6	13.8	14.4	35.0	62.0	52.5	28.8
Mandalay Town	42.7	33.2	9.6	12.1	157.0	152.9	112.1	56.5
* * * UPPER BURMA (WITH SHAN STATES, ETC.)	68.0	64.3	47.8	31.4	167.4	185.4	63.9	32.0
LOWER BURMA	55.1	28.1	21.1	13.0	57.4	55.0	49.3	17.8
TOTAL PROVINCE	60.7	45.4	32.7	21.8	105.1	117.4	55.6	24.6

TABLE VIII.

POPULATION OF BURMA ACCORDING TO INFIRMITIES, BY RACE.
AVERAGE NUMBER OF AFFLICTED PER 10,000 OF EACH SEX AMONG THE PRINCIPAL
INDIGENOUS RACES OF BURMA.

RACE.	INSANE.		DEAF-MUTES.		BLIND.		LEPERS.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Arakanese	7	4	3	1	3	2	1	1
Burmese	7	5	4	2	14	15	7	3
Chin	23	20	7	4	9	9	11	4
Kachin	3	2	11	8	2	5	1	—
Karen	3	1	1	—	2	2	3	1
Shan	4	4	5	3	13	12	3	2
Talaing	3	1	2	1	3	2	3	1
Taungthu	3	2	2	1	2	2	1	—
Total	6	5	3	2	11	12	6	3

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APPENDIX C.

THE REPORT OF THE MACAULAY
COMMISSION ON THE INDIAN
CIVIL SERVICE

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APPENDIX C.

THE REPORT OF THE MACAULAY COMMISSION ON THE INDIAN CIVIL SERVICE

REPORT ON THE INDIAN CIVIL SERVICE.

To the Right Honourable Sir Charles Wood, Bart., M.P.,
etc., etc., etc.

Sir,—We have attentively considered the subject about which you have done us the honour to consult us; and we now venture to submit to you the result of our deliberations. We do not think that we can more conveniently arrange the suggestions which we wish to offer than by following the order which is observed in the 39th and 40th clauses of the India Act of 1853.

The first matter concerning which the Board of Control is empowered by the 39th clause to make regulations is the age of the persons who are to be admitted into the college at Haileybury.

The present rule is that no person can be admitted under seventeen, and that no person can go out to India after twenty-three. Every student must pass four terms, that is to say, two years at the college. Consequently, none can be admitted after twenty-one.

It seems to us that it would be a great improvement to allow students to be admitted to the college up to the age of twenty-three, and to fix twenty-five as the latest age at which they can go out to India in the Civil Service. It is undoubtedly desirable that the Civil Servant of the Company should enter on his duties while still young; but it is also desirable that he should have received the best, the most liberal, the most finished education that his native country affords. Such an education has been proved by experience to be the best preparation for every calling which requires the exercise of the higher powers of the mind; nor will it be easy to show that such preparation is less desirable in the case of a Civil Servant of the East India Company than in the case of a professional man who remains in England. Indeed, in the case of the Civil Servant of the Company a good general education is even more desirable than in the case of the English professional man; for the duties even of a very young servant of the Company are more important than those which ordinarily fall to the lot of a professional man in England. In England, too, a professional man may, while engaged in active business, continue to improve his mind by means of reading and of conversation. But the servant of the Company is often stationed, during a large part of his life, at a great distance from libraries, and from European society, and will therefore find it peculiarly difficult to supply by study in his mature years the deficiencies of his early training.

The change which we propose will have one practical effect, to which we attach much importance. We think it desirable that a considerable number

of the Civil Servants of the Company should be men who have taken the first degree in arts at Oxford or Cambridge. At present the line is drawn as if it had been expressly meant to exclude bachelors of those Universities. It will, we believe, be found that the great majority of our academic youth graduate too late by a few months, and only by a few months, for admission into Haileybury.

We propose to fix eighteen as the lowest age at which a candidate can be admitted into the college. We are indeed of opinion that, except in very rare and extraordinary cases, it is not desirable that a lad should be admitted so early as eighteen. But we are convinced that, except in very rare and extraordinary cases, no lad of eighteen will have any chance of being admitted. Hitherto the admissions have been given by favour. They are henceforward to be gained by superiority in an intellectual competition. While they were given by favour, they were frequently, indeed generally, given to persons whose age was not much above the minimum. A director would naturally wish his son or nephew to be handsomely provided for at nineteen rather than at twenty-three, and to be able to return to England with a competence at forty-four rather than at forty-eight. A majority of the students have, therefore, been admitted before they were nineteen, and have gone out before they were twenty-one. But it is plain that, in any intellectual competition, boys of eighteen must be borne down by men of twenty-one and twenty-two. We may, therefore, we believe, safely predict that nine-tenths of those who are admitted to the college under the new system will be older than nine-tenths of those who quit it under the present system. We hope and believe that among the successful competitors will frequently be young men who have obtained the highest honours of Oxford and Cambridge. To many such young men a fellowship or a tutorship, which must be held on condition of celibacy, will appear less attractive than a situation which enables the person who holds it to marry at an early age.

The India Act next empowers the Board of Control to determine the qualifications of the candidates for admission to Haileybury. It seems to us to be proper that every person who intends to be a candidate should, at least six weeks before the examination, notify his intention to the Board of Control, and should at the same time transmit a list of the subjects in which he proposes to be examined, in order that there may be time to provide a sufficient number of examiners in each department. He should, at the same time, lay before the Board testimonials certifying that his moral character is good. Whether the testimonials be or be not satisfactory is a point which we conceive may safely be left to the determination of the Board.

The Board is then authorised by the Act to make regulations prescribing the branches of knowledge in which the candidates for admission to Haileybury shall be examined. Here arises at once a question of the gravest importance. Ought the examination to be confined to those branches of knowledge to which it is desirable that English gentlemen who mean to remain at home should pay some attention?—or ought it to extend to branches of knowledge which are useful to a servant of the East India Company, but useless, or almost useless, to a person whose life is to be passed in Europe?

Our opinion is that the examination ought to be confined to those branches of knowledge to which it is desirable that English gentlemen who mean to remain at home should pay some attention.

It is with much diffidence that we venture to predict the effect of the new system; but we think we can hardly be mistaken in believing that the introduction of that system will be an event scarcely less important to this country than to India. The educated youth of the United Kingdom are henceforth to be invited to engage in a competition in which about forty prizes will, on an average, be gained every year. Every one of these prizes is nothing less than an honourable social position, and a comfortable independence for life. It is difficult to estimate the effect which the prospect of prizes so numerous and so attractive will produce. We are, however, familiar with some facts which may assist our conjectures. At Trinity College, the largest and wealthiest of the colleges of Cambridge, about four fellowships are given annually by competition. These fellowships can be held only on condition of celibacy, and the income derived from them is a very moderate one for a single man. It is notorious that the examinations for Trinity fellowships have, directly and indirectly, done much to give a direction to the studies of Cambridge and of all the numerous schools which are the feeders of Cambridge. What, then, is likely to be the effect of a competition for prizes which will be ten times as numerous as the Trinity fellowships, and of which each will be more valuable than a Trinity fellowship? We are inclined to think that the examinations for situations in the Civil Service of the East India Company will produce an effect which will be felt in every seat of learning throughout the realm, at Oxford and Cambridge, at the University of London and the University of Durham, at Edinburgh and Glasgow, at Dublin, at Cork, and at Belfast. The number of candidates will doubtless be much greater than the number of vacancies. It will not surprise us if the ordinary number examined should be three or four hundred. The great majority, and among them many young men of excellent abilities and laudable industry, must be unsuccessful. If, therefore, branches of knowledge specially Oriental should be among the subjects of examination, it is probable that a considerable number of the most hopeful youths in the country will be induced to waste much time, at that period of life at which time is most precious, in studies which will never, in any conceivable case, be of the smallest use to them. We think it most desirable that the examination should be of such a nature that no candidate who may fail shall, to whatever calling he may betake himself, have any reason to regret the time and labour which he spent in preparing himself to be examined.

Nor do we think that we should render any service to India by inducing her future rulers to neglect, in their earlier years, European literature and science, for studies specially Indian. We believe that men who have been engaged, up to one or two and twenty, in studies which have no immediate connection with the business of any profession, and of which the effect is merely to open, to invigorate, and to enrich the mind, will generally be found, in the business of every profession, superior to men who have, at eighteen or nineteen, devoted themselves to the special studies of their calling. The most illustrious English jurists have been men who have never opened a

law book till after the close of a distinguished academical career; nor is there any reason to believe that they would have been greater lawyers if they had passed in drawing pleas and conveyances the time which they gave to Thucydides, to Cicero, and to Newton. The duties of a Civil Servant of the East India Company are of so high a nature that in his case it is peculiarly desirable that an excellent general education, such as may enlarge and strengthen his understanding, should precede the special education which must qualify him to despatch the business of his cutcherry.

It therefore seems to us quite clear that those vernacular Indian languages which are of no value except for the purpose of communicating with natives of India, ought not to be subjects of examination. But we are inclined, though with much distrust of our own judgment, to think that a distinction may properly be made between the vernacular languages and two languages which may be called the classical languages of India, the Sanskrit and the Arabic. These classical languages are by no means without intrinsic value in the eyes both of philologists and of men of taste. The Sanskrit is the great parent stock from which most of the vernacular languages of India are derived, and stands to them in a relation similar to that in which the Latin stands to the French, the Italian, the Spanish, and the Portuguese. The Arabic has contributed, though not in the same degree with the Sanskrit, to the formation of the vocabularies of India; and it is the source from which all the Mahometan nations draw their religion, their jurisprudence, and their science. These two languages are already studied by a few young men at the great English seats of learning. They can be learned as well here as in the East; and they are not likely to be studied in the East unless some attention has been paid to them here. It will, we apprehend, very seldom happen that a candidate will offer himself for examination in Sanscrit or in Arabic; but, as such instances may occur, we think it expedient to include those languages in the list of subjects.

As to the other subjects we speak with more confidence. Foremost among these subjects we place our own language and literature. One or more themes for English composition ought to be proposed. Two papers of questions ought to be set. One of those papers should be so framed as to enable the candidates to show their knowledge of the history and constitution of our country; the other ought to be so framed as to enable them to show the extent of their knowledge of our poets, wits, and philosophers.

In the two great ancient languages there ought to be an examination not less severe than those examinations by which the highest classical distinctions are awarded at Oxford and Cambridge. At least three passages from Latin writers ought to be set, to be translated into English. Subjects should be proposed for original composition, both in Latin verse and in Latin prose; and passages of English verse and prose should be set, to be turned into Latin. At least six passages from Greek writers should be set, to be translated into English. Of these passages, one should be taken from the Homeric poems, one from some historian of the best age, one from some philosopher of the best age, one from some Attic orator, and at least one from the Attic drama. The candidates ought to have a full opportunity of exhibiting their skill in translating both English prose and English verse into Greek; and

there should be a paper of questions which would enable them to show their knowledge of ancient history, both political and literary.

We think that three of the modern languages of the Continent, the French, the Italian, and the German ought to be among the subjects of examination. Several passages in every one of those languages should be set, to be turned into English; passages taken from English writers should be set, to be turned into French, Italian, and German; and papers of questions should be framed which would enable a candidate to show his knowledge of the civil and literary history of France, Italy, and Germany.

The examination in pure and mixed mathematics ought to be of such a nature as to enable the judges to place in proper order all the candidates, from those who have never gone beyond Euclid's Elements and the first part of algebra, up to those who possess the highest acquirements. We think it important, however, that not only the acquirements, but also the mental powers and resources of the competitors should be brought to the test. With this view the examination papers should contain a due proportion of original problems, and of questions calculated to ascertain whether the principles of mathematical science are thoroughly understood. The details will probably be best arranged by some of those eminent men who have lately been moderators in the University of Cambridge, and who know by experience how to conduct the examinations of large numbers of persons simultaneously. It must, however, be borne in mind that the extent and direction of mathematical reading, especially in the higher branches, differ greatly at the different Universities of the United Kingdom. The mathematical examination for the Indian service must, therefore, in order to do justice to all candidates, embrace a wider range of questions than is usual at Cambridge, Oxford, or Dublin.

Of late years some natural sciences which do not fall under the head of mixed mathematics, and especially chemistry, geology, mineralogy, botany, and zoology, have been introduced as a part of general education into several of our Universities and colleges. There may be some practical difficulty in arranging the details of an examination in these sciences; but it is a difficulty which has, we believe, been at some seats of learning already overcome. We have no hesitation in recommending that there should be at least one paper of questions relating to these branches of knowledge.

We propose to include the moral sciences in the scheme of examination. Those sciences are, it is well known, much studied both at Oxford and at the Scottish Universities. Whether this study shall have to do with mere words or with things, whether it shall degenerate into a formal and scholastic pedantry or shall train the mind for the highest purposes of active life, will depend, to great extent, on the way in which the examination is conducted. We are of opinion that the examination should be conducted in the freest manner, that mere technicalities should be avoided, and that the candidate should not be confined to any particular system. The subjects which fall under this head are the elements of moral and political philosophy, the history of the ancient and modern schools of moral and political philosophy, the science of logic, and the inductive method of which the *Novum Organum* is the great text-book. The object of the examiners should be rather to put

to the test the candidate's powers of mind than to ascertain the extent of his metaphysical reading.

The whole examination ought, we think, to be carried on by means of written papers. The candidates ought not to be allowed the help of any book; nor ought they, after once a subject for composition has been proposed to them, or a paper of questions placed before them, to leave the place of examination till they have finished their work.

It is, of course, not to be expected that any man of twenty-two will have made considerable proficiency in all the subjects of examination. An excellent mathematician will often have little Greek, and an excellent Greek scholar will be entirely ignorant of French and Italian. Nothing can be further from our wish than to hold out premiums for knowledge of wide surface and of small depth. We are of opinion that a candidate ought to be allowed no credit at all for taking up a subject in which he is a mere smatterer. Profound and accurate acquaintance with a single language ought to tell more than bad translations and themes in six languages. A single paper which shows that the writer thoroughly understands the principles of the differential calculus ought to tell more than twenty superficial and incorrect answers to questions about chemistry, botany, mineralogy, metaphysics, logic, and English history.

It will be necessary that a certain number of marks should be assigned to each subject, and that the place of a candidate should be determined by the sum total of the marks which he has gained. The marks ought, we conceive, to be distributed among the subjects of examination, in such a manner that no part of the kingdom, and no class of schools, shall exclusively furnish servants to the East India Company. It would be grossly unjust, for example, to the great academical institutions of England, not to allow skill in Greek and Latin versification to have a considerable share in determining the issue of the competition. Skill in Greek and Latin versification has indeed no direct tendency to form a judge, a financier, or a diplomatist. But the youth who does best what all the ablest and most ambitious youths about him are trying to do well will generally prove a superior man; nor can we doubt that an accomplishment by which Fox and Canning, Grenville and Wellesley, Mansfield and Tenterden, first distinguished themselves above their fellows, indicates powers of mind which, properly trained and directed, may do great service to the State. On the other hand, we must remember that in the north of this island the art of metrical composition in the ancient languages is very little cultivated, and that men so eminent as Dugald Stewart, Horner, Jeffrey, and Mackintosh, would probably have been quite unable to write a good copy of Latin *alcaics*, or to translate ten lines of Shakespeare into Greek *iambics*. We wish to see such a system of examination established as shall not exclude from the service of the East India Company either a Mackintosh or a Tenterden, either a Canning or a Horner. We have, with an anxious desire to deal fairly by all parts of the United Kingdom, and by all places of liberal education, framed the following scale, which we venture to submit for your consideration:—

English Language and Literature:	
Composition	500
History	500
General literature	500
	<u>1500</u>
Greek	750
Latin	750
French	375
German	375
Italian	375
Mathematics, pure and mixed	1000
Natural sciences	500
Moral sciences	500
Sanskrit	375
Arabic	375
	<u>6875</u>

It seems to us probable, that of the 6,875 marks, which are the maximum, no candidate will ever obtain half. A candidate who is at once a distinguished classical scholar and a distinguished mathematician will be, as he ought to be, certain of success. A classical scholar who is no mathematician, or a mathematician who is no classical scholar, will be certain of success, if he is well read in the history and literature of his own country. A young man who has scarcely any knowledge of mathematics, little Latin, and no Greek, may pass such an examination in English, French, Italian, German, geology, and chemistry, that he may stand at the head of the list.

It can scarcely be necessary for us to add, that no expense ought to be grudged which may be necessary to secure the services of the ablest examiners in every branch of learning. Experience justifies us in pronouncing with entire confidence that, if the examiners be well chosen, it is utterly impossible that the delusive show of knowledge which is the effect of the process popularly called cramming, can ever be successful against real learning and ability.

Whether the examinations ought to be held half-yearly or annually is a question which cannot, we think, be satisfactorily determined until after the first experiment has been made.

When the result of the examination has been declared, the successful candidates will not yet be Civil Servants of the East India Company, but only Civil Servants elect. It appears from the fortieth clause of the Act to be the intention of the Legislature that, before they proceed to the East, there should be a period of probation and a second examination.

In what studies, then, ought the period of probation to be passed? And what ought to be the nature of the second examination?

It seems to us that, from the moment at which the successful candidates, whom we will now call probationers, have been set apart as persons who will, in all probability, have to bear a part in the government of India, they should give their whole minds to the duties of their new position. They must now

be considered as having finished their general education, and as having finished it with honour. Their serious studies must henceforth be such as have a special tendency to fit them for their calling.

Of the special knowledge which a Civil Servant of the Company ought to possess, much can be acquired only in India, and much may be acquired far more easily in India than in England. It would evidently be a mere waste of time to employ a month here in learning what may be better learned in a week at Calcutta or Madras. But there are some kinds of knowledge which are not considered as essential parts of the liberal education of our youth, but which it is most important that a Civil Servant of the Company should possess, and which he may acquire in England not less easily, indeed more easily, than in India. We conceive that every probationer ought, during the interval between his first and his second examination, to apply himself vigorously to the acquiring of these kinds of knowledge.

The subjects of his new studies will, we apprehend, be found to range themselves under four heads.

He should, in the first place, make himself well acquainted with the history of India, in the largest sense of the word history. He should study that history, not merely in the works of Orme, of Wilks, and of Mill, but also in the travels of Bernier, in the odes of Sir William Jones, and in the journals of Heber. He should be well informed about the geography of the country, about its natural productions, about its manufactures, about the physical and moral qualities of the different races which inhabit it, and about the doctrines and rites of those religions which have so powerful an influence on the population. He should trace with peculiar care the progress of the British power. He should understand the constitution of our Government, and the nature of the relations between that Government and its vassals, Mussulman, Mahratta, and Rajpoot. He should consult the most important parliamentary reports and debates on Indian affairs. All this may be done with very much greater facility in England than in any part of India, except at the three seats of Government, if indeed the three seats of Government ought to be excepted.

Secondly, it seems to us to be desirable that every probationer should bestow some attention on the general principles of jurisprudence. The great majority of the Civil Servants of the East India Company are employed in the administration of justice. A large proportion of them are judges; and some of the most important functions of the collectors are strictly judicial. That the general principles of jurisprudence may be studied here with more advantage than in India will be universally acknowledged.

Thirdly, we think that every probationer ought to prepare himself for the discharge of his duties by paying some attention to financial and commercial science. He should understand the mode of keeping and checking accounts, the principles of banking, the laws which regulate the exchanges, the nature of public debts, funded and unfunded, and the effect produced by different systems of taxation on the prosperity of nations. We would by no means require him to subscribe any article of faith touching any controverted point in the science of political economy; but it is not too much to expect that he will make himself acquainted with those treatises on political economy which

have become standard works. These studies can undoubtedly be prosecuted with more advantage in England than in India.

Fourthly, we think that the study of the vernacular languages of India may, with great advantage, be begun in England. It is, indeed, only by intercourse with the native population that an Englishman can acquire the power of talking Bengalee or Telugu with fluency. But familiarity with the Bengalee or Telugu alphabet, skill in tracing the Bengalee or Telugu character, and knowledge of the Bengalee or Telugu grammar, may be acquired as quickly in this country as in the East. Nay, we are inclined to believe that an English student will, at his first introduction to an Indian language, make more rapid progress under good English teachers than under pundits, to whom he is often unable to explain his difficulties. We are, therefore, of opinion that every probationer should acquire in this country an elementary knowledge of at least one Indian language.

If this recommendation be adopted, it will be desirable that the probationers should, immediately after the first examination, be distributed among the Presidencies. It will indeed be desirable that the division of the Bengal Civil Service into two parts, one destined for the upper and the other for the lower provinces, should be made here at the earliest possible moment, instead of being made, as it now is, at Calcutta.

In what manner the distribution of Civil Servants among the Presidencies ought henceforth to be made is a question which, though it has not been referred to us, is yet so closely connected with the questions which have been referred to us that we have been forced to take it into consideration. We are disposed to think that it might be advisable to allow the probationers, according to the order in which they stand at the first examination, to choose their Presidencies. The only objection to this arrangement is, that, as the Presidency of Bengal is generally supposed to be the theatre on which the abilities of a Civil Servant may be most advantageously displayed, all the most distinguished young men would choose Bengal, and would leave Madras and Bombay to those who stood at the bottom of the list. We admit that this would be an evil; but it would be an evil which must, we conceive, speedily cure itself; for as soon as it becomes notorious that the ablest men in the Civil Service are all collected in one part of India, and are there stopping each other's way, a probationer who is free to make his choice will prefer some other part of India, where, though the prizes may be a little less attractive, the competition will be less formidable. If, however, it should be thought inexpedient to allow the probationers to choose their own Presidencies in the manner which we have suggested, it seems to us that the best course would be to make the distribution by lot. We are satisfied that, if the distribution be made arbitrarily, either by the Directors or by Her Majesty's Minister for Indian Affairs, it will be viewed with much suspicion, and will excite much murmuring. At present nobody complains of the distribution. A gentleman who has obtained a Bombay writership for his son is delighted and thankful. It may not be quite so acceptable as a Bengal writership would have been, but it is a free gift, it is a most valuable favour, and it would be the most odious ingratitude to repine because it is not more valuable still. Henceforth an appointment to the Civil Service of the Com-

pany will be not matter of favour, but matter of right. He who obtains such an appointment will owe it solely to his own abilities and industry. If, therefore, the Court of Directors or the Board of Control should send him to Bombay when he wishes to be sent to Bengal, and should send to Bengal young men who in the examination stood far below him, he will naturally think himself injured. His family and friends will espouse his quarrel. A cry will be raised, that one man is favoured because he is related to the Chairman, and another because he is befriended by a Member of Parliament who votes with the Government. It seems to us, therefore, advisable that the distribution of the Civil Servants among the Presidencies, if it cannot be made the means of rewarding merit, should be left to chance. After the allotment, of course, any two probationers should be at liberty to make an exchange by consent.

But, in whatever manner the distribution may be made, it ought to be made as soon as the issue of the first examination is decided; for, till the distribution is made, it will be impossible for any probationer to know what vernacular language of India it would be most expedient for him to study. The Hindostanee, indeed, will be valuable to him, wherever he may be stationed; but no other living language is spoken over one-third of India. Tamul would be as useless in Bengal and Bengalee would be as useless at Agra as Welsh in Portugal.

We should recommend that every probationer, for whatever Presidency he may be destined, should be permitted to choose Hindostanee as the language in which he will pass. A probationer who is to reside in the lower provinces of the Bengal Presidency should be allowed to choose either Hindostanee or Bengalee. A probationer who is to go to the upper provinces should be allowed to choose among Hindostanee, Hindee, and Persian. A probationer who is to go to Madras should be allowed to choose among Hindostanee, Telugu, and Tamul. A probationer who is to go to Bombay should be allowed to choose among Hindostanee, Mahrattee, and Guzeratee.

It is probable that some probationers who have a peculiar talent for learning languages will study more than one of the dialects among which they are allowed to make their choice. Indeed it is not improbable that some who take an interest in philology will apply themselves voluntarily to the Sanskrit and the Arabic. It will hereafter be seen that, though we require as the indispensable condition of passing only an elementary knowledge of one of the vernacular tongues of India, we propose to give encouragement to those students who aspire to be eminent Orientalists.

The four studies, then, to which, in our opinion, the probationers ought to devote themselves during the period of probation, are: first, Indian history; secondly, the science of jurisprudence; thirdly, commercial and financial science; and, fourthly, the Oriental tongues.

The time of probation ought not, we think, to be less than one year, nor more than two years.

There should be periodical examinations, at which a probationer of a year's standing may pass, if he can, and at which every probationer of two years' standing must pass, on pain of forfeiting his appointment. This examination should, of course, be in the four branches of knowledge already men-

tioned as those to which the attention of the probationers ought to be especially directed. Marks should be assigned to the different subjects, as at the first examination; and it seems to us reasonable that an equal number of marks should be assigned to all the four subjects, on the supposition that each probationer is examined in only one of the vernacular languages of India. Sometimes, however, as we have said, a probationer may study more than one of these vernacular languages of India among which he is at liberty to make his choice, or may, in addition to one or more of the vernacular languages of India, learn Sanskrit or Arabic. We think it reasonable that to every language in which he offers himself for examination an equal number of marks should be assigned.

When the marks have been cast up, the probationers who have been examined should be arranged in order of merit. All those who have been two years probationers, and who have, in the opinion of the examiners, used their time well, and made a respectable proficiency, should be declared Civil Servants of the Company. Every probationer who, having been a probationer only one year, has obtained a higher place than some of the two-year men who have passed, should also be declared a Civil Servant of the Company. All the Civil Servants who pass in one year should take rank in the service according to their places in the final examination. Thus a salutary emulation will be kept up to the last moment. It ought to be observed that the precedency which we propose to give to merit will not be merely honorary, but will be attended by very solid advantages. It is in order of seniority that the members of the Civil Service succeed to those annuities to which they are all looking forward, and it may depend on the manner in which a young man acquits himself at his final examination whether he shall remain in India till he is past fifty or shall be able to return to England at forty-seven or forty-eight.

The instances in which persons who have been successful in the first examination will fail in the final examination will, we hope and believe, be very few. We hope and believe, also, that it will very rarely be necessary to expel any probationer from the service on account of grossly profligate habits, or of any action unbecoming a man of honour. The probationers will be young men superior to their fellows in science and literature; and it is not among young men superior to their fellows in science and literature that scandalous immorality is generally found to prevail. It is notoriously not once in twenty years that a student who has attained high academical distinction is expelled from Oxford or Cambridge. Indeed, early superiority in science and literature generally indicates the existence of some qualities which are securities against vice,—industry, self-denial, a taste for pleasures not sensual, a laudable desire of honourable distinction, a still more laudable desire to obtain the approbation of friends and relations. We therefore believe that the intellectual test which is about to be established will be found in practice to be also the best moral test that can be devised.

One important question still remains to be considered. Where are the probationers to study? Are they all to study at Haileybury? Is it to be left to themselves to decide whether they will study at Haileybury or elsewhere? Or will the Board of Control reserve to itself the power of determining which

of them shall study at Haileybury, and which of them shall be at liberty to study elsewhere?

That the college at Haileybury is to be kept up is clearly implied in the terms of the 37th and 39th clauses of the India Act. That the Board of Control may make regulations which would admit into the Civil Service persons who have not studied at Haileybury is as clearly implied in the terms of the 40th and 41st clauses. Whether the law ought to be altered is a question on which we do not presume to give any opinion. On the supposition that the law is to remain unaltered, we venture to offer some suggestions which appear to us to be important.

There must be, we apprehend, a complete change in the discipline of the college. Almost all the present students are under twenty; almost all the new students will be above twenty-one. The present students have gone to Haileybury from schools where they have been treated as boys. The new students will generally go thither from Universities, where they have been accustomed to enjoy the liberty of men. It will therefore be absolutely necessary that the regulations of the college should be altered, and that the probationers should be subject to no more severe restraint than is imposed on a bachelor of arts at Cambridge or Oxford.

There must be an extensive change even in the buildings of the college. At present, each student has a single small chamber, which is at once his parlour and bedroom. It will be impossible to expect men of two or three and twenty, who have long been accustomed to be lodged in a very different manner, to be content with such accommodation.

There must be a great change in the system of study. At present, the students generally go to Haileybury before they have completed their general education. Their general education and their special education, therefore, go on together. Henceforth, the students must be considered as men whose general education has been finished, and finished with great success. Greek, Latin, and mathematics will no longer be parts of the course of study. The whole education will be special, and ought, in some departments, to be of a different kind from that which has hitherto been given.

We are far, indeed, from wishing to detract from the merit of those professors, all of them highly respectable and some of them most eminent, who have taught law and political economy at Haileybury. But it is evident that a course of lectures on law or political economy given to boys of eighteen, who have been selected merely by favour, must be a very different thing from a course of lectures on law or political economy given to men of twenty-three, who have been selected on account of their superior abilities and attainments. As respects law, indeed, we doubt whether the most skilful instructor will be able at Haileybury to impart to his pupils that kind of knowledge which it is most desirable that they should acquire. Some at least of the probationers ought, we conceive, not merely to attend lectures, and to read well-chosen books on jurisprudence, but to see the actual working of the machinery by which justice is administered. They ought to hear legal questions, in which great principles are involved, argued by the ablest counsel, and decided by the highest courts in the realm. They ought to draw up reports of the arguments both of the advocates and of the judges. They

ought to attend both civil and criminal trials, and to take notes of the evidence, and of the discussions and decisions respecting the evidence. It might be particularly desirable that they should attend the sittings of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council when important appeals from India are under the consideration of that tribunal. A probationer, while thus employed, should regularly submit his notes of arguments and of evidence to his legal instructor for correction. Such a training as this would, we are inclined to think, be an excellent preparation for official life in India; and we must leave it to the Board of Control to consider whether any plan can be devised by which such a training can be made compatible with residence at Haileybury.

We have, etc.

(Signed)

T. B. MACAULAY.

ASHBURTON.

HENRY MELVILL.

BENJAMIN JOWETT.

JOHN GEORGE SHAW LEFEVRE.

NOVEMBER, 1854.

APPENDIX D.

DETAILS IN REGARD TO THE EX- AMINATION FOR THE INDIAN CIVIL SERVICE

- I. Regulations.
- II. A selection from the papers set at the open competitive examination for the Indian Civil Service, 1904.
 - (a) Subjects for English Composition. (b) Moral Philosophy. (c) Political Science. (d) Zoology. (e) English Language and Literature. (f) General Modern History. (g) Chemistry. (h) Advanced Mathematics. (i) Latin Language and Literature.

I am indebted to the courtesy of the Controller of His Majesty's Stationery Office for permission to reprint the following matter referring to the Indian Civil Service Examinations.

APPENDIX D.

DETAILS IN REGARD TO THE EXAMINATION FOR THE INDIAN CIVIL SERVICE

I.

REGULATIONS.

(The following details refer to the examinations held in 1904.)

EXAMINATIONS FOR THE CIVIL SERVICE OF INDIA.

An open Competitive Examination for admission to the Civil Service of India will be held in London, under the subjoined Regulations, commencing on the 1st of August, 1904.

Fifty Candidates will be selected if so many shall be found duly qualified at this Examination. The Candidates will probably be assigned as follows:— For the Lower Provinces of Bengal (including Assam) 10, for the Upper Provinces (*i.e.*, the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, the Punjab, and the Central Provinces) 22, for Burma 5, for Madras 6, for Bombay 7.

No person will be admitted to compete from whom the Secretary, Civil Service Commission, has not received on or before the 1st of July, 1904, an application on the prescribed form, accompanied by a list of the subjects in which the Candidate desires to be examined.

If Candidates who fill up and return the Application Form do not receive an acknowledgment of it within four complete days, they should write to the Secretary, Civil Service Commission, Burlington Gardens, London, W.

The Order for admission to the Examination will be posted on the 18th of July, 1904, to the address given on the Form of Application. It will contain instructions as to the time and place at which Candidates will be required to attend, and as to the manner in which the fee (£6) is to be paid.

CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION,
19th of May, 1904.

REGULATIONS.

The following Regulations, made by the Secretary of State for India in Council, are liable to alteration from year to year.

1. An Examination for admission to the Civil Service of India, open to all qualified persons, will be held in London in August of each year. The date of the Examination and the number of appointments to be made for each Province will be announced beforehand by the Civil Service Commissioners.

2. No person will be deemed qualified who shall not satisfy the Civil Service Commissioners:—

(i.) That he is a natural-born subject of His Majesty.

- (ii.) That he had attained the age of twenty-one, and had not attained the age of twenty-three, on the first day of the year in which the Examination is held.

[N.B.—*In the case of Natives of India it will be necessary for a Candidate to obtain a certificate of age and nationality issued under Notification of the Government of India, No. 2252, dated 21st of August, 1888, as amended by Notification No. 404, dated 19th of May, 1898, and signed, should he be a resident in British India, by the Secretary to Government of the Province, or the Commissioner of the Division within which his family resides, or should he reside in a Native State, by the highest Political Officer accredited to the State in which his family resides.*]

- (iii.) That he has no disease, constitutional affection, or bodily infirmity unfitting him, or likely to unfit him, for the Civil Service of India.
(iv.) That he is of good moral character.

3. Should the evidence upon the above points be *prima facie* satisfactory to the Civil Service Commissioners, the Candidate, on payment of the prescribed fee, will be admitted to the Examination. The Commissioners may, however, in their discretion, at any time prior to the grant of the Certificate of Qualification hereinafter referred to, institute such further inquiries as they may deem necessary; and if the result of such inquiries, in the case of any Candidate, should be unsatisfactory to them in any of the above respects, he will be ineligible for admission to the Civil Service of India, and, if already selected, will be removed from the position of a probationer.

4. The Open Competitive Examination will take place only in the following branches of knowledge:—

	Marks.
English Composition	500
Sanskrit Language and Literature	500
Arabic Language and Literature	500
Greek Language and Literature	750
Latin Language and Literature	750
English Language and Literature (including special period named by the Commissioners)	500
French Language and Literature	500
German Language and Literature	500
Mathematics (pure and applied)	900
Advanced Mathematical subjects (pure and applied)	900
Natural Science, <i>i.e.</i> , any number not exceeding <i>three</i> of the following subjects:—	
Chemistry	600
Physics	600
Geology	600
Botany	600
Zoology	600
Animal Physiology	600
Greek History (Ancient, including Constitution)	400

	<i>Marks.</i>
Roman History (Ancient, including Constitution)	400
English History	500
General Modern History (one of the periods specified in the syllabus issued by the Commissioners)*	500
Logic and Mental Philosophy (Ancient and Modern)	400
Moral Philosophy (Ancient and Modern)	400
Political Economy and Economic History	500
Political Science (including Analytical Jurisprudence, the Early History of Institutions, and Theory of Legislation)	500
Roman Law	500
English Law. Under the head of "English Law" shall be included the following subjects, viz.: (1) Law of Contract; (2) Law of Evidence; (3) Law of the Constitution; (4) Criminal Law; (5) Law of Real Property; and of these five subjects Candidates shall be at liberty to offer any four, but not more than four,	500

Candidates are at liberty to name any or all of these branches of knowledge. None is obligatory.

5. The merit of the persons examined will be estimated by marks; and the number set opposite to each branch in the preceding regulation denotes the greatest number of marks that can be obtained in respect of it.

6. The marks assigned to Candidates in each branch will be subject to such deduction as the Civil Service Commissioners may deem necessary,* in order to secure that no credit be allowed for merely superficial knowledge.

7. The Examination will be conducted on paper and *viva voce*, as may be deemed necessary.

8. The marks obtained by each Candidate, in respect of each of the branches in which he shall have been examined, will be added up, and the names of the several Candidates who shall have obtained, after the deduction above mentioned, a greater aggregate number of marks than any of the remaining Candidates, will be set forth in order of merit, and such Candidates shall be deemed to be selected Candidates for the Civil Service of India, provided they appear to be in other respects duly qualified. Should any of the selected Candidates become disqualified, the Secretary of State for India will determine whether the vacancy thus created shall be filled up or not. In the former case the Candidate next in order of merit, and in other respects duly qualified, shall be deemed to be a selected Candidate. A Candidate entitled to be deemed a selected Candidate, but declining to accept the nomination as such, which may be offered to him, will be disqualified for any subsequent competition.

9. Selected Candidates before proceeding to India will be on probation for one year, at the end of which time they will be examined, with a view of testing their progress in the following subjects:—

Compulsory—

	<i>Marks.</i>
1. Indian Penal Code	400
2. Code of Criminal Procedure	200

* No deduction will be made from the marks assigned to Candidates in Mathematics or English Composition.

	<i>Marks.</i>
3. The Indian Evidence Act	200
4. Indian History	400
*5. The principal Vernacular Language of the Province to which the Candidate is assigned	400

Optional—[Not more than one of the following subjects.]

1. Hindu and Muhammadan Law	450
†2. Sanskrit	400
†3. Arabic	400
4. Persian	400
5. Chinese (for Candidates assigned to the Province of Burma only)	400

In this Examination, as in the Open Competition, the merit of the Candidates examined will be estimated by marks (which will be subject to deductions in the same way as the marks assigned at the Open Competition), and the number set opposite to each subject denotes the greatest number of marks that can be obtained in respect of it. The Examination will be conducted on paper and *vivâ voce*, as may be deemed necessary. This Examination will be held at the close of the year of probation, and will be called the "*Final Examination*."

If any Candidate is prevented by sickness or any other adequate cause from attending such examination, the Commissioners may, with the concurrence of the Secretary of State for India in Council, allow him to appear at the Final Examination to be held in the following year, or at a special examination.

10. The selected Candidates will also be tested during their probation as to their proficiency in Riding.

The examinations in riding will be held as follows:—

- (1) Shortly after the result of the Open Competitive Examination has been declared, or at such time or times as the Commissioners may appoint during the course of the probationary year.
- (2) Again, at the time of the Final Examination, Candidates who may fully satisfy the Commissioners of their ability to ride well and to perform journeys on horseback shall receive a Certificate which shall entitle them to be credited with 200 or 100 marks, according to the degree of proficiency displayed, to be added to their marks in the Final Examination.
- (3) Candidates who fail to obtain this Certificate, but who gain a Certificate of minimum proficiency in riding, will be allowed to proceed

* The principal Vernacular Language prescribed for each Province to which Candidates are assigned is as follows:—

For the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, the Punjab, and the Central Provinces	Hindustani.	
For Burma	Burmese.	
For Bombay	Marathi.	
For Madras	Tamil or Telugu	} At the option of the Candidate.
For the Lower Provinces of Bengal	Hindustani or Bengali	

In Hindustani the Candidate will be required to be acquainted with both the Persian and the Nagari character; and, in the case of the last two Provinces mentioned above, a Candidate whose Vernacular Language is either of the languages shown against his Province must offer the other for examination.

† These subjects may not be offered by any Candidate who has offered them at the open competition.

to India, but will be subjected on their arrival to such further tests in riding as may be prescribed by their Government, and shall receive no increase to their initial salary until they have passed such tests to the satisfaction of that Government. A candidate who fails at the end of the year of probation to gain at least the Certificate of minimum proficiency in riding will be liable to have his name removed from the list of Selected Candidates.

11. The selected Candidates who, on examination, shall be found to have a competent knowledge of the subjects specified in Regulation 9, and who shall have satisfied the Civil Service Commissioners of their eligibility in respect of nationality, age, health, character, conduct, during the period of probation, and ability to ride, shall be certified by the said Commissioners to be entitled to be appointed to the Civil Service of India, provided they shall comply with the regulations in force at the time for that Service.

12. Persons desirous to be admitted as Candidates must apply on Forms, which may be obtained from "The Secretary, Civil Service Commission, London, W.," at any time after the 1st of December in the year previous to that in which the Examination is to be held. The forms must be returned so as to be received at the office of the Civil Service Commissioners on or before the 1st of July (or, if that date should fall upon a Sunday or public holiday, then on or before the first day thereafter on which their office is open) in the year in which the Examination is to be held.

The Civil Service Commissioners are authorised by the Secretary of State for India in Council to make the following announcements:—

- (i.) Selected Candidates will be allotted to the various Provinces upon a consideration of all the circumstances, including their own wishes; but the requirements of the Public Service will rank before every other consideration.
- (ii.) An allowance amounting to £100 will be given to all Candidates who pass their probation at one of the Universities or Colleges which have been approved by the Secretary of State, viz., the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, Dublin, Glasgow, Edinburgh, St. Andrew's, and Aberdeen; Victoria University, Manchester; University College, London; and King's College, London; provided such Candidates shall have passed the Final Examination to the satisfaction of the Civil Service Commissioners, and shall, in the opinion of the Secretary of State, have conducted themselves well and complied with such rules as may be laid down for the guidance of Selected Candidates. The whole probation must ordinarily be passed at the same Institution. Migration will not be permitted except for special reasons approved by the Secretary of State.
- (iii.) The allowance of £100 will not be paid to any Selected Candidate until he has been certified by the Civil Service Commissioners to be entitled to be appointed to the Civil Service of India; and every Certified Candidate must, before receiving his allowance, give a written undertaking to refund the amount in the event of his failing to proceed to India.

- (iv.) All Candidates obtaining Certificates will be also required to enter into covenants, by which, amongst other things, they will bind themselves to make such payments as, under the rules and regulations for the time being in force, they may be required to make towards their own pensions or for the pensions of their families. The stamps payable on these covenants amount to £1.
- (v.) The seniority in the Civil Service of India of the Selected Candidates will be determined according to the order in which they stand on the list resulting from the combined marks of the Open Competitive and Final Examinations.
- (vi.) Selected Candidates will be required to report their arrival in India within such period after the grant of their Certificate of Qualification as the Secretary of State may in each case direct.
- (vii.) Candidates rejected at the Final Examination held in any year will in no case be allowed to present themselves for re-examination.

N.B.—A Manual of Rules and Regulations applicable to members of the covenanted Civil Service of India has been compiled by permission of the Government of India and may now be procured either from Messrs. A. Constable & Co., 2 Whitehall Gardens, S.W., or from Mr. E. A. Arnold, 37 Bedford Street, Covent Garden. Price 2s. 6d.

The Commissioners have been requested by the Secretary of State for India to draw the attention of Selected Candidates to the prefatory note attached to this manual, as it is considered important that it should be clearly understood that this compilation is not to be regarded in any other light than of a collection, made for facility of reference, of certain information and rules, that it is by no means exhaustive, and that it is liable to such modifications as may from time to time be sanctioned by competent authority.

II.

A SELECTION FROM THE PAPERS SET AT THE OPEN COMPETITIVE EXAMINATION FOR THE INDIAN CIVIL SERVICE, 1904.

(a) SUBJECTS FOR ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

You should pay attention to your spelling, punctuation, grammar, and style. Your Composition should fill at least two pages, but it will be valued according to the quality rather than the quantity.

Write an essay on *one* of the following subjects:—

How far is the poetical literature of a people an index of the national character?

Or,

Bilingual countries and their interest for the Philologist and the Statesman.

Or,

“Without arms there is no justice.” (Rienzi.)

Or,

The comparative influence of Education and Heredity in the forming of character.

(b) MORAL PHILOSOPHY.

[SIX questions, and not more than SIX, to be answered in all, and not more than FOUR from one Section. All the questions carry equal marks.]

SECTION A.

1. Explain succinctly Plato's image of the Cave-dwellers, and examine its value in relation to the practical problems of Ethics, without entering into the details of Plato's application of it.
2. What is the ethical analysis of *Temperance*, in Plato and in Aristotle, respectively? Distinguish the Platonic *Temperance* from the Platonic *Justice*.
3. How is Aristotle led to his conclusions as to the nature of *Justice* in Book V. of the *Nicomachean Ethics*? Consider how far his arguments are consistent with his general doctrine of the Mean.
4. οἱ δ' εὐεργέται τοὺς εὐεργετηθέντας δοκοῦσι μᾶλλον φιλεῖν, ἢ οἱ εὖ παθόντες τοὺς δρᾶσαντας, καὶ ὥς παρὰ λόγον γινόμενον, ἐπιζητεῖται.

Reproduce Aristotle's examination of this question, and discuss the adequacy of his solution.

5. Describe and trace to its psychological sources the Epicurean account of the relation between Pleasure and Desire, and the relative value of pleasures.
6. What do you know of the ethical system of Plotinus?

SECTION B.

7. Trace the influence of the Socratic dictum that Virtue is One, upon (a) Aristotle, (b) the Stoics.
8. Give some account of the development in Greek philosophy of the idea of *αὐτάρκεια*.
9. Explain, and criticise, from a modern standpoint, Plato's views as to the duty of the State in regard to the moral and religious education of its citizens.
10. “The difference between virtue and vice cannot be sought in the degree in which certain maxims are followed, but only in the specific quality of the maxims. Hence Aristotle's principle that virtue is the mean between two vices is false.” (Kant.) Estimate the value of this criticism, and consider how far it represents with accuracy the Aristotelian doctrine.

11. Compare the meaning of the maxim "Follow nature," as it was understood (a) by the Stoics, (b) by Rousseau, (c) by Butler.
12. "Is the standard of individual Ethics the same as the standard of international Ethics?" Consider the value of the answer which would have been given by the Platonic philosophy to this question.

(c) POLITICAL SCIENCE.

[Answer Question 1 and any FIVE of the remaining questions, all of which carry equal marks.]

1. Comment upon any four of the following passages:—

(1) The Farmer really founded the Town, and, after he had founded it, the Merchant and the Craftsman settled in it. (Hering.)

(2) La plupart des peuples anciens vivoient dans des gouvernements qui ont la vertu pour principe. (Montesquieu.)

(3) Every good political institution must have a preventive operation, as well as a remedial. (Burke.)

(4) From war has been gained all that it had to give. (Spencer.)

(5) Laws of the wisest human device are, after all, but the sheath of the sword of Power. (J. R. Lowell.)

(6) I think that a wise partisan of the wealthy minority, in framing a new constitution for a modern country, would accept as a principle of construction, that a senate ought to represent superior culture or political enlightenment rather than wealth. (Sidgwick.)

2. Define "Privilege." Indicate in outline the extent to which political privilege is justifiable.
3. Consider the advantages and disadvantages of Arbitration, regarded as a means of settling political and economic disputes.
4. Advanced systems of law usually aim at enforcing obedience by the imposition of penalties. How do you account for this fact? Are there any signs of departure from the principle?
5. To what extent is it possible to trace the influence of social organisation in primitive forms of land ownership? Refer to examples.
6. Indicate and illustrate three of the fundamental assumptions on which modern International Law is based. How far are these assumptions in accordance with the facts?
7. Compare the merits of statutory and judiciary law (a) as alternatives, (b) as elements of the same system.
8. "Rome under Trajan was an empire without a nation." (Coleridge.) Explain the meaning of this dictum, and consider its truth.
9. Summarise the leading principles of the so-called Manchester School, and estimate their influence on the English politics of the last half-century.
10. "It is the sea which unites, the land which divides." Examine this proposition, and apply it to determine the comparative prospects of sea and land empires.

(d) ZOOLOGY.

[SIX questions, and not more than SIX, are to be answered. All questions carry equal marks.]

1. Give some account of the structural features which the Ophidia and Lacerilia possess in common, and of those which differentiate them.
2. Compare the vertebrate and invertebrate Fauna of Great Britain with that of Western Continental Europe. Draw a similar contrast between Madagascar and Tropical Africa, and comment upon the facts.
3. Discuss the principal facts in the anatomy of *either* the Isopoda *or* the Amphipoda.
4. Trace the modifications of the first (mandibular) arch through the vertebrate series, giving any two views of the homologies of the parts concerned.
5. Give some account of the minute anatomy of the eye in any two invertebrates.
6. State any facts that you know concerning the structure, life history, and habits of the Indian Elephant.
7. Give some account of *either* the Gregarians *or* the Infusoria.
8. Give an account of the respiratory organs in air-breathing vertebrates.
9. Discuss the modifications of the coelomic cavity in Mollusca and Arthropoda.
10. Compare and contrast the gonads and their ducts in Hirudinea and Chætopoda.

(e) ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

1360-1600.

[Answer the first two questions, and any four, but not more than four, of the remaining questions, all of which carry equal marks.]

1. From whence are the following quotations taken? Give the context, and explain any allusions, as well as difficulties in meaning, construction, or metre:—
 - (a) So Catoun, which that was so wyse a man
Sayde he not thus: "Ne do no fors of dremes"?
 - (b) Tho rownede she a pistel in his eere.
 - (c) To Kerke the narre, from God more farre.
 - (d) In their trinal triplicities on high.
 - (e) O bush unbrent, brenning in Moses syghte,
That rauysedest down fro the deitee
Through thy humblesse the goost that in thalyghte.

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

- (f) The Werdes withstand, a god stops his meek ears.
 Like to the aged boisteous bodied oak,
 The which among the Alps the northern winds,
 Blowing now from this quarter, now from that,
 Betwixt them strive to overwhelm with blasts:
 The whistling air among the branches roars,
 Which all at once bow to the earth her crops,
 The stock once smit . . .
 So was this Lord now here now there beset.
- (g) When ease abounds, yts eath to do amis;
 But who hir limbs with labours, and hir mind
 Behaves with cares, cannot so easy mis.
 Abroad in arms, at home in studious kind,
 Who seeks with painful toyle, shall honour soonest find.
- (h) Men clepen hem sereynes in Fraunce.
- (i) Hir eyen greye and gladde also,
 That laughede ay in hir semblaunt,
 First or the mouth by covenant.
 I not what of hir nose descryve.
- (k) With torment and with shameful deth echon
 This provost dooth the Jewes for to sterve,
 That of this mordre wyste, and that anon;
 He nolde no swiche cursedness observe.
- (l) The wretched payre transformed to treen mould.
- (m) None of these points could ever frame in me:
 And much the less of things that greater be,
 That asken help of colours to devise;
 To join the mean with each extremity,
 With a near virtue to cloke alway the vice.
- (n) An art that teacheth the way of speedy discourse and restrain-
 eth the mind that it may not wax overwise.

2. Point out the faults in the punctuation of this and the next passage.
 Turn them into modern English and add notes where needed:—

- (a) The lofty pine the great wind often rives;
 With violenter sway fallen turrets steep;
 Lightnings assault the high mountains and clives,
 A heart well stayed, in overthwartes deep.
 Hopeth amends; in sweet doth fear the sour.
 God that sendeth, withdraweth winter sharp.
 Now ill, not aye thus; once Phoebus to lower,
 With bow unbent, shall cease; and frame to harp.
 His voice in strait estate appear thou stout;
 And so wisely, when lucky gale of wind
 All thy puft sails shall fill, look well about;
 Take in a reef; haste is waste, proof doth find.

- (b) Then speketh the thyrd, to the honest man that thought not to playe, what wylle you playe your xii. pence if he excuse him, tush man wyll the other saye, sticke not in honest company for xii. d. I will beare you halfe, and here is my money.
 - (c) Comment on the following words, pointing out where the modern use differs from that of Chaucer or Spenser: buxom, uncouth, imp, nice, bugle, aeglogue, imply, ought, German, miser, spill, thewes, whot.
 - (d) Give the rule for the pronunciation of final *e* or *es* in Chaucer's verse. What is his use of the initial *y*? Illustrate the force of the prefixes *be-*, *for-*, and *to-* in compounds employed by him?
 - (e) Mention any archaisms which occur in the Prayer-book and in the Authorised Version, and any pseudo-archaisms employed by Spenser.
3. "Whoever wishes to understand the spirit of the great majority of poems written in England between the reigns of Edward III. and Henry VIII. must first make the acquaintance of the *Roman de la Rose*." Illustrate this statement. How do you account for the popularity of this romance?
 4. The good and bad points of the Age of Chivalry, as exhibited in the *Morte d'Arthur* and the *Fairy Queen*.
 5. Give examples of the intermixture of Pagan and Christian ideas or expressions from the writings of Chaucer, Spenser, and Milton.
 6. Give the dates of the most important English books from 1550 to 1600, exclusive of the drama. Name any translations made during this period from ancient or foreign languages, and illustrate their influence on English literature.
 7. Whence did Malory get the materials of his work? Give a short account of the Holy Grail and its appearances as described in the *Morte d'Arthur*. How does Tennyson's *Lady of Shalott* differ from Malory's story? Which of Tennyson's Idylls are derived from other sources of that period?
 8. Point out the resemblances and differences in the allegories of the Red Cross Knight and of *The Pilgrim's Progress*.
 9. What were the circumstances which induced Hooker to treat of the nature of Law? Compare his account of Law with that given by Cicero and the Stoics.
 10. Mention any peculiarities of Hooker's style, and give examples. Illustrate Keble's remark that "a vein of keenest humour runs through his writings."
 11. What does Ascham say of the study of Greek in Cambridge? On what grounds does he recommend the use of archery?
 12. Quote from Spenser any passages in praise of Chaucer, Sir Philip Sidney, and other English writers.

13. Discuss the literary influence of the English Court from the reign of Edward III. to that of Henry VIII., both inclusive. What were the chief stimulants to intellectual interest among the lower classes during the same period?

(f) GENERAL MODERN HISTORY.

PERIOD IV.—A.D. 1715–1848.

[Six questions only to be answered, two from each division. All the questions carry equal marks.]

(A.)

1. Discuss the responsibility of French political parties and European sovereigns for the outbreak of war in 1792.
2. In what ways was the constitution of the Swiss Confederation modified by French action during the Republic and the Empire?
3. Give an account of the interference of Russia in Western Europe during the reign of Paul. How far was his action on the former lines of Russian policy?
4. Explain the tactics of the French Revolutionary armies. What modifications were made by Napoleon, and how were French tactics met (a) by Continental, (b) by British armies?

(B.)

5. How was the action of Prussia during the years 1795–1806 influenced by the wish to acquire Hanover?
6. Show how the policy of the British authorities in India was affected, after 1789, by fear of France and Russia.
7. Describe the early negotiations of the Congress of Vienna, and explain how they encouraged Napoleon to return to France.
8. What were the original aims of the Holy Alliance, and what were its subsequent developments?

(C.)

9. "I called the New World into existence to redress the balance of the Old." How far was this sentence true, and what motives of policy led Canning to take the steps which he described in these words?
10. Explain and criticise the foreign policy of Nicholas I. How far was he the typical Russian autocrat?
11. Explain the origin and dissolution of Louis Philippe's alliance with Great Britain, and estimate the extent to which the loss of British friendship contributed to the fall of the Orleans monarchy.
12. What causes favoured the outbreak of a European convulsion in 1848? Account for the weakness shown alike by governments and revolutionary partisans.

(g) CHEMISTRY.

[Six questions, and not more than six questions, are to be answered. All the questions carry equal marks.]

[N.B.—Equations and diagrams should be given wherever possible.]

- Describe and explain the method of Dumas for obtaining the vapour density of a substance of high boiling point.
If a porcelain vessel of 100 c.c. capacity is filled with a vapour at 1100°C ., and the weight of the vapour is found to be 0.182 gram, what is the vapour density of the substance compared with hydrogen?
[1 litre of hydrogen weighs 0.09 gram N. T. P.]
- What is meant by *osmotic pressure*? Describe, with a sketch, the apparatus employed for determining the osmotic pressure of an aqueous solution.
A decinormal solution of KI (molecular weight in grams dissolved in 10 litres) gives an osmotic pressure of 3.36 atmospheres. What would you infer as to the molecular weight and condition of the salt?
[K = 39; I = 127.]
- How are the specific heats of gases at constant volume determined? Show how, on the kinetic theory, the ratio of the specific heats of a gas gives a clue to the constitution of its molecule.
For argon the ratio $\frac{C_p}{C_v} = 1.66$. What can be inferred from this ratio?
- Give an account (with sketches of plant) of one of the modern methods now employed in the manufacture of chlorine.
- Give the sources from which potash salts are obtained.
Describe the preparation of the following potash salts, and give briefly any of their characteristic properties which indicate their constitution:—The acid carbonate, thiosulphate, tetrathionate, persulphate.
- How would you identify, separate, and purify the constituents present in the following mixtures:—
(i.) Hexane and benzene;
(ii.) Ethyl alcohol and ethyl acetate;
(iii.) Chloroform and methyl alcohol;
(iv.) Aniline and nitrobenzene?
- Give an account of the modes of preparation and the reactions of the oxy-propionic acids, pointing out the properties which indicate their constitutional formulæ.

(h) ADVANCED MATHEMATICS.

[Seven questions and no more are to be answered. All questions carry equal marks. Gravitational acceleration is 32 foot-second units.]

- A body hangs by a vertical wire which is clamped at the upper end, and performs torsional oscillations with a period of 2.54 seconds. If a

metal ring is placed upon it, so as to have the wire for its axis, the period is increased to 3.27 seconds. Compare the moment of inertia (about the axis of the wire) of the body with that of the ring.

2. The axis of suspension of a compound pendulum is made to execute a small simple harmonic vibration $a \cos pt$ in a horizontal direction at right angles to its length. Obtain the equation of angular motion of the pendulum, and prove that, when p is very great, the centre of oscillation is practically at rest, so far as the *forced* oscillations are concerned.
3. Prove that when a railway truck is moving on a straight incline its inertia is greater than that of an ideal particle of the same mass on a smooth plane of the same inclination, in the ratio

$$1 + \frac{\mu \kappa^2}{Ma^2}$$

where M is the total mass, μ that of all the wheels, a the radius of a wheel, κ its radius of gyration.

Investigate the corresponding ratio when the track is curved in a vertical plane.

4. If the kinetic energy T of a system be expressed as a homogeneous quadratic function of the rates of change of the generalised co-ordinates q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n , prove that the component impulses which would generate the actual motion instantaneously from rest are

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_1}, \quad \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_2}, \quad \dots, \quad \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_n}.$$

A piston sliding in a fixed cylinder is connected with a fly-wheel by means of a crank and connecting rod in the usual way. Taking account of the inertia of the fly-wheel and the piston, but neglecting (for simplicity) that of the connecting rod, find the effective inertia of the piston in any part of its stroke. Also find the impulse of the couple necessary to stop the motion of the fly-wheel in any given position.

5. A light rod, whose mass may be neglected, can turn freely about its upper end, which is fixed. At its lower end it carries a fly-wheel pivoted with its axis in a line with that of the rod. Obtain two first integrals of the dynamical equations in terms of the inclination (θ) and azimuth (ψ) of the rod.

Prove that, if θ is always small, the motion of the rod relatively to axes which turn about the vertical with the constant angular velocity $Cn/2A$ is the same as that of a simple pendulum of suitable length relatively to fixed axes, provided n is the angular velocity of the fly-wheel, and A, A, C are its principal moments of inertia at its point of support.

6. Prove that the potential on itself of a gravitating mass is

$$\frac{1}{8\pi\gamma} \iiint R^2 dx dy dz,$$

where R is the resultant force at (x, y, z) , γ the constant of gravitation, and the integration extends through all space.

Apply this to find the self-potential of a uniform solid sphere.

7. Find the forms of the lines of force and equipotential surfaces due to two uniformly charged long parallel wires, the charges per unit length being equal and opposite.

Apply your results to find the electrostatic capacity per unit length of a condenser formed of two conducting circular cylinders, one enclosing the other, having given the radii, and the distance between the axes which are supposed parallel.

8. State a rule for finding the mechanical forces on a conductor carrying a current, in a given magnetic field.

Apply it to find the effect of a uniform field on a circular current whose plane is oblique to the field; and verify that the result agrees with that deduced by Ampère's artifice of the equivalent magnetic shell.

9. Find the "dimensions" of the electric resistance of a coil, and of its "coefficient of self-induction."

A wire is wound on a tube, with n turns per unit length, so as to form a solenoid of length l and radius a . Find (approximately) its coefficient of self-induction.

Also examine the case of a solenoid bent into the form of a ring.

10. If a condenser be discharged through a coil of wire, find the condition that the discharge should be oscillatory.

A periodic electromotive force $E \cos pt$ acts in a circuit which is interrupted by a condenser: find the current, taking account of self-induction and resistance.

11. Establish the equations of motion of electricity in two circuits, taking account of mutual influence.

A closed circuit A is in the neighbourhood of a circuit B which contains a battery of given E. M. F. Trace the history of the currents in A and B from the moment when the circuit B is closed to the attainment of the steady state.

(i) LATIN.

LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

A.

[Answer the first question, and three (and only three) of the remainder: the answers should be written concisely.]

1. Explain and illustrate these uses of the cases:—

(a) Argentum, quod habes, condonamus te. (TER.)

(b) Hostem qui feriet mihi erit Carthaginiensis. (ENN.)

(c) Fies nobilium tu quoque fontium. (HOR.)

(d) Neque illi
Sepositi ciceris nec longae invidit avenae. (HOR.)

(e) Tempus desistere pugnae. (VIRG.)

(f) Nunc cassum lumine lugent. (VIRG.)

and these of the moods :—

(g) O mihi praeteritos referat si Juppiter annos! (VIRG.)

(h) Scire tuum nihil est. (PERS.)

(i) Romamne venio an hic maneo? (CIC.)

(j) Mene incepto desistere victam? (VIRG.)

2. Discuss these forms of pronouns :—

(a) Ingens cura *mis* cum concordibus aequiperare. (ENN.)

(b) Postquam lumina *sis* oculis bonus Ancu' reliquit. (LUCR.)

(c) Constitit inde loci propter *sos* dia dearum. (ENN.)

(d) Olli subridens hominum sator atque deorum. (VIRG.)

(e) Haec quoque non cura nobis levio^{re} tuendae. (VIRG.)

3. What is the origin of the following words?—*kalendae*, *minister*, *liberi*, *alumnus*, *em*, *nuper*, *nemo*, *arvum*, *praeda*, *deliro*, *officina*, *Manes*, *neglego*, *gratis*, *catus*.

4. Explain and illustrate the phonetic changes seen in: *praestigiae*, *lacrima*, *oliva*, *bis*, *Tarentum*, *Hecuba*, *Clodius*, *nivis* (*Gen.*), *nosco*, *valde*.

5. Quote lines of Latin poetry in evidence of the quantity of the first syllable of: *Apulia*, *lucerna*, *pavo*, *papaver*, *pumex*, *pilum*, *palumbes*, *vomer*, *viduus*, *liquidus*. Mention in each case the author of the line.

6. How have the following words changed their meaning at different periods of the language?—*ast*, *enim*, *audeo*, *amitto*, *provincia*. Illustrate your answer by quotations.

7. Discuss the archaic forms in these two inscriptions :—

(a) L. Terentio M. Albani quaistores aire moltaticod dederont.

(b) Honce loucom nequis violatod. Seiquis violasit Iove bovid piaculum datod.

B.

[In this section of the paper four questions, and only four, are to be attempted.
All the questions carry equal marks.]

1. What do you know of the life and writings of M. Terentius Varro?

2. "Spain furnished some of the leaders of Roman literature in the first century A.D." Who were these literary Spaniards? What was their social position? In what kinds of literature did they excel?

3. Illustrate from any *two* plays of Plautus what you consider to be his strong and his weak points as a comedian.

4. Give a brief account of Calvus, Valerius Maximus, Fronto, Minucius Felix, Laberius.

5. Give the substance and, so far as you can, the actual words of any *two* of the following:—
- (a) Virgil's lines on the young Marcellus.
 - (b) Horace's Ode to Pyrrha.
 - (c) Catullus' Elegy on the Sparrow.
 - (d) Juvenal's description of the fall of Sejanus.
 - (e) Lucretius' praise of Epicurus.
6. "The Parthian played the same part in Augustan poetry as the Carthaginian in the poetry of Ennius." What allusions to Parthia do you remember in Augustan poets?
7. Illustrate from Sallust and Tacitus their affectation of archaic diction.
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APPENDIX E.

THE CLIMATE OF BURMA

- Table I. Temperature of Burma. Observations taken during five years, 1895-1899, at Stations in Lower Burma and in Upper Burma.
- Table II. Rainfall of Burma. Observations taken during five years, 1895-1899, at Stations in Lower Burma and in Upper Burma.
- Table III. Temperature and Rainfall Normals, and the Actuals for 1904 at Stations in Lower Burma and in Upper Burma.

APPENDIX E.

THE CLIMATE OF BURMA

TABLE I.
TEMPERATURE OF BURMA.

LOWER BURMA, 1895.												
PLACE AT WHICH OBSERVATION WAS TAKEN.	AVERAGE TEMPERATURE IN THE SHADE, IN DEGREES FAHRENHEIT.											
	May.				July.				December.			
	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Highest readings.	Lowest readings.	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Highest readings.	Lowest readings.	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Highest readings.	Lowest readings.
Akyab	90.20	78.70	93.00	73.00	87.00	77.90	91.00	73.70	79.50	64.70	85.00	58.50
Sandoway . .	93.00	80.00	99.00	73.00	88.00	77.00	94.00	70.00	88.00	65.00	92.00	53.00
Rangoon . . .	89.60	76.70	97.90	71.90	84.80	75.40	88.90	73.00	87.90	68.70	90.50	65.20
Tharrawaddy .	96.51	78.10	100.00	75.00	91.54	76.67	93.00	72.00	84.32	57.35	85.00	56.00
Prome	91.61	76.96	99.00	71.00	89.51	76.51	95.00	70.00	80.35	66.03	89.00	60.00
Bassein . . .	90.80	76.40	96.30	71.20	86.20	75.5	89.90	73.10	84.10	67.00	89.30	62.50
Henzada . . .	94.00	74.00	99.00	71.00	87.00	74.00	91.00	72.00	88.00	77.00	91.00	70.00
Thayetmyo . .	95.20	77.60	102.00	72.00	90.80	77.10	95.00	75.00	81.60	62.50	88.00	55.50
Toungoo . . .	94.00	76.00	100.00	73.00	89.00	75.00	93.00	73.00	82.37	64.51	87.00	59.00
Papun	83.00	81.00	92.00	67.00	78.00	79.00	84.00	70.00	81.00	75.00	90.00	60.00
Thatôn . . .	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	91.60	65.10	93.00	58.00
Moulmein . .	87.50	77.40	96.50	73.00	84.00	74.60	89.50	71.50	89.76	70.53	92.00	63.00
Tavoy	87.60	76.00	94.50	74.00	86.10	74.90	91.50	73.00	91.37	70.09	94.00	65.00
Mergui . . .	83.20	74.30	98.80	72.50	86.00	73.10	91.20	69.30	90.83	70.04	94.20	65.00
UPPER BURMA, 1895.												
Mandalay . .	96.00	74.30	104.00	69.00	96.10	79.40	100.00	73.20	80.00	59.10	86.40	55.00
Bhamo	90.40	66.90	99.90	66.30	88.80	75.70	94.20	71.70	75.90	52.00	81.00	44.60
Mogók	78.00	40.00	85.00	34.00	78.00	42.00	82.00	40.00	65.00	21.00	69.00	14.00
Shwebo . . .	90.25	78.29	94.00	70.00	90.93	79.41	94.00	78.00	77.90	60.61	80.00	56.00
Sagaing . . .	93.48	76.41	100.00	73.00	90.35	82.29	95.00	79.00	75.90	62.51	86.00	58.00
Mónywa . . .	93.00	78.00	99.00	70.00	95.00	80.00	98.00	78.00	79.00	61.00	86.00	55.00
Kindat . . .	91.10	75.00	98.80	66.70	90.40	77.30	95.40	74.70	75.10	55.90	80.60	51.50
Minbu	95.00	77.50	102.40	72.40	91.30	78.00	95.00	75.80	79.50	62.50	86.20	58.20
Magwe	95.61	76.03	102.00	73.00	88.73	70.32	95.00	69.00	77.58	60.67	82.00	54.00
Kyauksè . . .	*	*	101.00	80.00	*	*	99.00	84.00	*	*	80.00	65.00
Meiktila . . .	94.00	73.4	100.60	67.00	92.8	74.00	94.00	67.00	85.00	61.00	90.00	58.00
Yamèthin . .	93.80	74.80	102.80	71.00	91.40	75.30	95.60	71.40	81.10	71.20	88.80	66.40

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

TABLE I.—*Continued.*
TEMPERATURE OF BURMA.

LOWER BURMA, 1896.												
PLACE AT WHICH OBSERVATION WAS TAKEN.	AVERAGE TEMPERATURE IN THE SHADE, IN DEGREES FAHRENHEIT.											
	May.				July.				December.			
	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Highest readings.	Lowest readings.	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Highest readings.	Lowest readings.	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Highest readings.	Lowest readings.
Akyab	90.20	78.70	93.00	73.00	87.00	77.90	91.00	73.70	79.50	64.70	85.00	58.50
Sandoway . . .	92.00	79.00	96.00	72.00	88.00	76.00	92.00	75.00	89.00	72.00	91.00	71.00
Rangoon . . .	90.90	76.20	101.80	73.00	84.40	75.30	88.80	73.00	86.40	65.10	90.80	59.20
Tharrawaddy . .	89.83	64.77	99.00	55.00	84.96	49.03	88.00	47.00	78.09	45.61	82.00	45.00
Prome	97.32	76.19	104.00	74.00	84.09	75.77	89.00	72.00	86.26	61.32	90.00	52.00
Bassein . . .	91.04	76.57	90.30	72.20	85.12	75.44	95.70	72.40	85.00	63.89	89.00	59.60
Henzada . . .	102.00	81.00	104.00	76.00	98.00	75.00	103.00	70.00	95.00	74.00	98.00	61.00
Thayetmyo . .	99.20	78.70	106.00	72.50	88.80	77.20	92.00	75.50	87.50	56.90	91.50	49.50
Toungoo . . .	95.85	77.56	103.00	75.00	87.98	75.30	94.50	74.00	84.66	67.80	99.00	59.00
Papun	86.00	79.00	98.00	76.00	83.00	77.00	90.00	72.00	81.00	62.00	89.00	59.00
Thatôn	91.19	73.33	102.00	68.00	87.39	73.42	89.00	71.00	89.00	62.05	92.00	55.00
Moulmein . . .	87.26	75.26	95.55	71.00	82.56	74.68	87.00	73.00	86.55	66.77	90.00	60.00
Tavoy	90.06	76.32	99.50	74.00	84.37	75.37	90.50	73.50	90.24	65.44	94.00	56.00
Mergui	89.28	74.26	97.60	72.50	81.85	73.26	91.50	70.60	89.58	65.90	92.60	56.00
UPPER BURMA, 1896.												
Mandalay . . .	104.60	79.30	106.00	70.00	96.00	79.40	100.40	77.20	85.20	58.70	90.00	53.00
Bhamo	93.60	71.80	101.80	65.20	89.60	74.90	95.60	72.00	77.70	49.50	83.00	43.00
Mogók	81.00	59.00	90.00	48.00	80.00	68.00	84.00	66.00	80.00	65.00	80.00	56.00
Shwebo	92.00	75.00	98.00	72.00	89.00	79.00	94.00	78.00	81.00	57.00	84.00	54.00
Sagaing	96.67	81.29	103.00	75.00	91.19	80.16	96.00	77.00	74.99	60.54	85.00	58.00
Mónywa	99.22	80.00	105.00	72.00	94.09	80.38	98.00	78.00	85.96	59.80	90.00	54.00
Kindat	97.31	74.87	104.50	64.60	90.96	77.90	94.60	75.60	78.75	66.56	82.60	52.00
Minbu	99.70	79.90	105.40	75.80	91.20	77.70	101.50	76.60	85.30	60.70	90.00	55.20
Magwe	98.35	70.71	103.00	68.00	87.98	69.68	92.00	69.00	83.55	56.06	88.00	49.50
Kyaukse	97.00	87.00	102.00	73.00	92.00	83.00	96.00	79.00	86.00	71.00	90.00	66.00
Meiktila	97.96	76.24	103.80	70.00	89.16	74.25	93.30	66.00	72.38	60.81	90.00	50.00
Yamèthin . . .	99.60	*	107.00	*	91.80	*	96.40	*	89.50	57.90	93.00	50.60

* Not recorded.

TABLE I.—*Continued.*
TEMPERATURE OF BURMA.

LOWER BURMA, 1897.												
PLACE AT WHICH OBSERVATION WAS TAKEN.	AVERAGE TEMPERATURE IN THE SHADE, IN DEGREES FAHRENHEIT.											
	May.				July.				December.			
	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Highest readings.	Lowest readings.	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Highest readings.	Lowest readings.	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Highest readings.	Lowest readings.
Akyab	90.70	78.30	94.20	70.30	85.10	77.50	88.70	74.80	81.50	64.30	85.50	59.00
Sandoway . .	90.00	74.00	91.00	72.00	85.00	76.00	98.00	67.00	80.00	67.00	86.00	55.00
Rangoon . . .	90.10	76.00	101.50	72.40	85.30	74.70	88.80	73.00	86.30	63.90	90.50	61.00
Tharrawaddy .	92.35	40.22	100.00	40.00	89.25	77.51	93.00	75.00	83.61	64.80	86.00	57.00
Prome	91.77	76.58	94.00	72.00	86.23	75.94	94.00	73.00	86.00	63.39	89.00	57.00
Bassein	89.25	76.59	99.70	72.80	84.91	74.93	90.20	73.20	85.32	66.41	89.20	60.90
Henzada . . .	102.00	69.00	105.00	67.00	80.00	70.00	92.00	69.00	85.00	70.00	90.00	69.00
Thayetmyo . .	99.40	78.60	105.00	77.00	88.60	77.00	99.00	67.00	87.20	56.12	94.00	53.00
Toungoo . . .	93.91	77.19	104.50	74.00	88.08	75.56	92.50	73.00	84.45	62.87	88.00	58.00
Papun	89.00	80.00	99.00	76.00	84.00	77.00	92.00	76.00	84.00	69.00	92.00	61.00
Thatôn	90.54	74.01	98.00	71.00	86.00	73.00	89.00	70.00	90.71	64.40	92.00	57.00
Moulmein . . .	87.40	76.37	95.00	74.00	83.94	74.84	89.00	72.00	85.70	68.37	91.00	62.00
Tavoy	91.34	76.58	100.00	74.00	84.97	75.29	91.00	74.00	88.31	70.16	92.05	66.00
Mergui	89.96	75.41	97.40	73.00	85.83	73.71	91.80	71.20	87.82	69.39	92.80	62.90
UPPER BURMA, 1897.												
Mandalay . . .	99.60	80.00	106.80	72.00	95.40	79.40	102.00	74.00	82.90	61.30	88.60	57.20
Bhamo	96.30	72.27	103.00	67.00	87.81	74.52	94.20	71.50	76.50	51.93	88.80	46.00
Mogók	84.64	74.33	86.00	71.00	89.33	71.64	90.00	70.00	73.03	38.22	74.00	37.00
Shwebo	63.52	79.81	102.00	74.00	89.64	79.81	94.00	78.00	78.64	63.22	82.00	60.00
Sagaing	92.00	82.00	101.00	76.00	90.00	83.00	95.00	77.00	78.00	62.00	82.00	58.00
Mónywa	100.41	79.93	107.00	72.00	96.16	80.29	100.00	77.00	81.03	61.64	84.00	58.00
Kindat	89.40	77.40	107.60	62.40	89.41	77.85	98.40	75.20	79.87	57.74	85.80	53.80
Minbu	97.80	79.30	106.20	74.00	91.50	77.50	98.20	74.70	84.10	62.60	92.00	57.00
Magwe	98.71	70.61	104.00	62.00	96.45	68.35	99.00	66.00	85.58	55.35	89.00	51.00
Kyauksè	95.00	81.00	101.00	74.00	93.00	81.00	97.00	76.00	78.00	67.00	86.00	62.00
Meiktila . . .	93.16	72.77	103.00	62.00	94.12	76.64	96.00	67.00	85.38	58.29	87.00	56.00
Yaméthin . . .	96.00	80.20	107.20	79.60	87.00	75.00	99.00	72.00	85.00	59.00	93.00	52.00

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

TABLE I.—*Continued.*
TEMPERATURE OF BURMA.

LOWER BURMA, 1898.												
PLACE AT WHICH OBSERVATION WAS TAKEN.	AVERAGE TEMPERATURE IN THE SHADE, IN DEGREES FAHRENHEIT.											
	May.				July.				December.			
	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Highest readings.	Lowest readings.	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Highest readings.	Lowest readings.	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Highest readings.	Lowest readings.
Akyab	92.10	75.00	97.90	66.50	84.10	73.20	89.70	71.00	81.80	57.90	84.00	50.50
Sandoway . .	90.77	70.97	96.00	70.00	86.61	67.45	90.00	66.00	83.00	56.48	86.00	53.00
Rangoon . . .	87.70	75.39	97.50	72.00	83.85	74.20	87.30	72.20	87.54	64.11	90.40	60.80
Tharrawaddy .	90.29	78.19	100.00	74.00	86.45	75.74	90.00	74.00	82.81	61.74	85.00	54.00
Prome	95.06	76.12	104.00	70.00	86.87	75.13	91.00	73.00	87.09	61.32	90.00	53.00
Bassein	89.61	76.00	97.30	71.00	84.35	74.50	88.70	72.90	85.15	63.53	88.30	59.60
Henzada . . .	96.00	81.00	99.00	75.00	86.00	77.00	89.00	74.00	92.00	63.00	94.00	57.00
Thayetmyo . .	96.43	77.80	105.00	72.00	89.19	76.40	93.00	73.00	87.42	57.65	90.00	49.00
Toungoo . . .	94.11	76.48	102.50	72.50	87.26	74.87	92.50	73.00	87.66	61.48	90.00	57.00
Papun	88.00	77.00	91.00	74.00	84.00	75.00	87.00	73.00	80.00	63.00	84.00	61.00
Thatôn	99.35	72.66	100.00	70.00	86.64	72.19	89.00	70.00	85.84	52.03	90.00	42.00
Moulmein . . .	86.92	75.19	96.00	72.00	82.67	74.02	87.00	72.00	87.06	64.52	94.00	60.00
Tavoy	88.32	75.81	95.00	74.00	84.69	75.03	89.00	73.00	89.13	63.23	94.00	56.00
Mergui	88.77	74.27	93.00	70.60	85.06	73.88	88.50	72.50	87.25	65.91	90.00	62.00
UPPER BURMA, 1898.												
Mandalay . . .	99.47	77.99	106.00	72.00	95.34	78.89	106.10	74.90	85.82	61.51	89.90	52.00
Bhamo	95.35	70.19	103.80	68.20	90.87	75.20	100.80	72.00	77.97	53.85	82.60	46.00
Mogók	82.58	55.51	83.00	54.00	83.25	55.83	85.00	54.00	79.74	36.80	80.00	35.00
Shwebo	94.00	77.00	110.00	70.00	98.00	79.00	99.00	77.00	80.00	59.00	81.00	56.00
Sagaing	94.77	81.00	102.00	74.00	89.67	79.61	100.00	74.00	79.71	64.52	83.00	56.00
Mónywa	96.53	81.54	106.00	72.00	92.83	82.00	96.00	80.00	76.58	65.00	82.00	54.00
Kindat	95.06	71.78	106.20	68.40	90.79	76.29	96.20	71.40	78.29	56.71	82.60	52.00
Mínbu	97.75	79.00	106.00	71.20	89.99	77.11	94.70	75.00	85.25	60.55	88.50	55.20
Magwe	100.70	71.18	103.00	66.00	93.00	64.83	95.00	58.00	84.58	49.60	86.00	47.00
Kyauksè . . .	97.00	79.00	103.00	73.00	92.00	78.00	100.00	74.00	87.00	64.00	90.00	59.00
Meiktila . . .	99.79	72.74	103.00	71.00	83.87	72.61	98.00	70.00	86.46	62.77	87.00	57.00
Yamèthin . . .	96.80	75.20	105.40	71.00	89.16	74.18	97.00	72.00	86.69	59.35	90.60	53.60

TABLE I.—*Concluded.*
TEMPERATURE OF BURMA.

LOWER BURMA, 1899.												
PLACE AT WHICH OBSERVATION WAS TAKEN.	AVERAGE TEMPERATURE IN THE SHADE, IN DEGREES FAHRENHEIT.											
	May.				July.				December.			
	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Highest readings.	Lowest readings.	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Highest readings.	Lowest readings.	Mean of maximum readings.	Mean of minimum readings.	Highest readings.	Lowest readings.
Akyab	87.03	75.00	92.02	70.05	83.03	74.02	89.00	71.07	79.00	48.04	82.04	44.00
Sandoway . .	80.00	70.00	94.00	70.00	84.00	69.00	88.00	69.00	77.00	56.00	83.00	56.00
Rangoon . . .	86.09	75.04	94.01	70.02	85.02	75.05	88.09	72.02	87.04	62.05	91.04	57.08
Tharrawaddy .	86.03	78.54	95.00	74.00	83.29	77.45	89.00	75.00	80.39	61.19	83.00	56.00
Prome	93.39	76.42	101.00	74.00	86.16	76.03	90.00	75.00	86.29	59.55	89.00	54.00
Bassein . . .	87.11	75.33	92.02	70.02	85.14	75.34	89.09	72.05	82.80	61.50	85.07	57.02
Henzada . . .	102.00	76.00	103.00	50.00	86.00	75.00	89.00	74.00	82.00	63.00	91.00	60.00
Thayetmyo . .	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Toungoo . . .	90.18	76.32	100.50	73.00	86.80	74.79	94.00	70.00	82.63	56.44	85.00	50.00
Papun	89.00	78.00	97.00	75.00	82.00	76.00	89.00	74.00	84.00	62.00	88.00	53.00
Thatôn	88.16	64.29	94.00	60.00	83.68	64.13	88.00	61.00	87.23	53.03	91.00	44.00
Moulmein . . .	88.00	75.60	93.00	71.50	82.06	74.61	87.50	72.00	87.27	66.44	92.00	59.00
Tavoy	89.69	75.89	96.00	73.00	84.85	75.56	89.00	74.00	89.47	67.94	92.00	58.00
Mergui	88.82	74.79	93.00	73.00	88.15	75.13	92.00	72.00	87.32	70.05	91.50	63.00
UPPER BURMA, 1899.												
Mandalay . . .	95.33	78.96	107.09	73.00	93.46	78.32	101.03	72.09	80.54	57.28	82.06	53.00
Bhamo	92.06	72.09	104.08	68.02	89.01	75.09	95.04	73.06	75.02	49.09	78.00	45.02
Mogók	82.00	55.00	83.00	53.00	81.00	54.00	85.00	53.00	80.00	32.00	82.00	31.00
Shwebo	99.00	70.00	104.00	58.00	89.00	66.00	92.00	58.00	72.00	59.00	74.00	58.00
Sagaing	98.29	73.70	102.00	60.00	88.00	77.83	100.00	72.00	70.90	54.25	81.00	52.00
Mónywa	95.22	80.87	106.00	75.00	92.29	80.64	98.00	78.00	81.03	58.84	83.00	53.00
Kindat	88.09	69.08	107.02	68.04	88.04	76.05	93.06	74.06	74.02	53.07	79.00	48.00
Minbu	92.67	78.31	103.04	72.00	89.37	77.59	93.00	74.06	80.65	57.27	82.04	52.06
Magwe	98.64	79.22	101.00	70.00	91.61	74.32	94.00	70.00	81.41	60.54	84.00	50.00
Kyauksè . . .	94.00	79.00	101.00	74.00	95.00	80.00	99.00	75.00	83.00	58.00	86.00	51.00
Meiktila . . .	91.26	75.51	103.00	71.00	87.48	71.80	93.00	69.00	77.97	58.39	80.00	53.00
Yamèthin . . .	93.44	75.72	106.02	71.00	87.25	74.14	97.04	70.04	83.11	54.39	86.02	50.02

* Records lost by fire.

TABLE II.
RAINFALL OF BURMA.

LOWER BURMA. RAINFALL IN INCHES.																				
PLACES AT WHICH OBSERVATIONS WERE TAKEN.	1895.				1896.				1897.				1898.				1899.			
	January to May.	June to September.	October to December.	Total.	January to May.	June to September.	October to December.	Total.	January to May.	June to September.	October to December.	Total.	January to May.	June to September.	October to December.	Total.	January to May.	June to September.	October to December.	Total.
Akyab	10.72	133.76	10.64	155.12	10.30	183.83	3.92	198.05	15.86	162.54	21.05	199.45	4.85	182.12	6.52	193.49	18.70	186.72	22.24	227.66
Paletwa	20.48	62.71	17.18	100.37	10.29	88.71	1.86	100.86	7.78	88.49	14.02	110.29	7.17	110.95	5.79	123.91	12.63	101.86	15.37	129.86
Kyaukpny	9.96	124.82	15.89	150.67	6.04	185.00	4.59	195.63	12.30	151.65	19.69	183.64	4.65	168.82	2.98	176.45	27.70	142.06	15.62	185.38
Sandoway	20.21	130.81	18.44	169.46	10.82	235.87	8.39	255.08	12.06	170.62	11.97	194.65	12.55	197.53	7.62	217.70	33.19	193.55	8.09	234.83
Rangoon	16.50	73.98	3.65	94.03	11.02	86.20	10.89	108.11	13.19	67.93	13.29	94.41	25.37	80.76	3.24	109.05	24.99	76.31	2.67	103.97
Hmawbi	13.91	66.55	1.67	82.13	13.39	89.99	8.62	112.00	7.82	63.49	9.28	80.59	14.24	85.74	5.80	105.80	17.19	56.60	2.11	75.90
Pegu	11.49	95.81	3.00	110.30	16.47	107.72	8.45	132.64	17.07	89.23	9.89	116.19	17.03	94.65	2.74	114.42	20.15	116.14	4.33	140.62
Tharawaddy	8.92	54.53	5.71	69.16	13.81	76.39	3.48	93.68	9.15	62.69	7.52	79.36	10.81	69.71	1.09	81.61	11.99	59.52	5.66	77.17
Prome	6.29	31.75	4.41	42.45	5.05	28.73	1.97	35.75	11.03	24.59	7.74	43.36	7.91	28.47	1.45	37.83	9.63	27.47	2.00	39.10
Ma-ubin	16.50	67.31	5.72	89.53	14.14	78.43	10.16	102.73	10.00	70.79	8.78	89.57	21.58	72.74	2.35	96.67	24.78	64.59	3.09	92.46
Bassein	10.56	75.02	7.07	92.65	16.91	115.92	7.99	140.82	15.42	84.81	13.41	113.64	10.75	106.07	7.74	124.56	33.32	75.41	9.41	118.14
Henzada	8.08	58.88	4.74	71.70	8.76	71.40	3.98	84.14	11.02	60.03	6.14	77.19	7.11	66.18	4.67	77.96	12.09	61.39	5.46	78.94
Myaungmya	14.87	70.08	5.38	90.33	15.70	107.69	6.81	130.20	13.69	81.07	11.28	106.04	10.41	100.36	8.05	118.82	36.68	61.10	8.16	105.94
Thayetmyo	9.31	18.89	6.05	34.25	1.03	19.08	2.88	23.04	10.62	23.87	10.66	45.15	5.24	19.09	1.97	26.30	5.80	26.69	1.48	33.97
Toungoo	11.10	48.82	4.99	64.91	8.03	53.60	9.73	71.36	12.73	56.25	7.70	76.68	10.91	62.22	1.72	74.85	10.14	68.07	10.32	88.53
Papua	16.41	62.78	4.92	84.11	16.53	95.31	6.97	118.81	13.74	98.09	10.09	121.92	18.16	79.31	3.63	101.10	17.67	86.08	4.36	108.11
Thabon	35.29	146.05	6.70	188.04	28.64	183.37	14.76	226.77	22.85	165.75	22.22	210.82	32.20	138.86	10.78	181.84	26.43	153.06	5.24	180.65
Moulmein	27.28	135.62	7.42	170.32	33.12	177.72	7.75	218.59	19.21	136.16	11.79	166.16	32.36	160.78	6.44	199.58	22.35	132.17	5.69	164.29
Tavoy	28.30	140.97	5.18	174.45	36.22	197.14	9.72	243.08	29.03	181.70	17.21	227.94	28.24	165.46	3.56	197.26	42.53	171.86	6.87	221.26
Mergui	38.54	114.27	7.07	159.88	30.72	139.69	15.52	185.93	32.94	127.11	19.32	179.37	29.76	111.31	9.64	150.71	42.10	82.36	9.47	133.93

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

TABLE III.

TEMPERATURE AND RAINFALL NORMALS AND THE ACTUALS FOR 1904
AT VARIOUS STATIONS IN LOWER AND IN UPPER BURMA.

PLACE AT WHICH OBSERVATION WAS TAKEN.	TEMPERATURE OF THE AIR IN DEGREES FAHRENHEIT.						RAINFALL.			
	Normal mean max- imum of year.	Mean maximum for 1904.	Normal mean mini- mum of year.	Mean minimum for 1904.	Highest tempera- ture recorded during 1904.	Lowest tempera- ture recorded during 1904.	Normal number of rainy days during year.	Number of rainy days during 1904	Normal rainfall of year, in inches.	Rainfall during 1904 in inches.
<i>Lower Burma</i>										
Mergui	87.6	87.0	71.2	72.5	95.6	60.3	154.20	159	168.37	185.50
Tavoy	87.9	86.5	*	*	97.2	*	147.30	162	209.28	286.26
Moulmein . . .	88.1	87.4	72.4	71.9	98.9	58.9	140.60	157	183.92	207.77
Rangoon	89.5	87.6	72.8	72.9	98.6	59.8	123.10	120	96.78	100.16
Bassein	88.1	87.2	72.0	72.9	99.2	56.8	128.50	131	112.00	112.53
Akyab	86.2	84.8	72.2	72.0	92.9	56.6	118.70	135	189.20	187.77
Toungoo	90.2	89.2	70.6	68.3	103.4	48.6	113.60	119	79.11	94.01
Thayetmyo . . .	91.9	90.6	*	66.7	105.5	46.0	72.50	88	36.72	40.31
<i>Upper Burma</i>										
Minbu	92.2	89.9	71.1	71.1	107.1	50.0	50.50	61	31.86	37.83
Yamèthin	92.2	89.0	69.4	69.4	103.3	48.1	61.20	65	37.56	34.37
Mónywa	*	90.0	*	70.7	105.7	50.6	44.60	46	28.39	30.73
Mandalay	92.5	90.4	71.1	71.0	105.1	48.5	47.50	68	32.36	47.38
Myitkyina	*	83.2	*	66.3	97.9	40.1	*	105	*	69.48
Bhamo	86.6	84.3	65.1	64.7	98.0	40.7	99.80	114	73.38	77.80
Maymyo	*	76.8	*	57.1	90.9	31.6	90.70	96	58.95	63.47
Lashio	82.7	81.5	60.0	60.3	95.5	36.1	*	118	61.28	75.84

* Not recorded.

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APPENDIX F.

RULES FOR THE CONDUCT OF
THE LEGISLATIVE BUSINESS
OF THE COUNCIL OF
THE LIEUTENANT-
GOVERNOR OF
BURMA

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APPENDIX F.

RULES FOR THE CONDUCT OF THE LEGISLATIVE BUSINESS OF THE LIEUTENANT- GOVERNOR OF BURMA

I.—Preliminary.

1. In these rules:—

“Council” means the Council of the Lieutenant-Governor of Burma assembled for the purpose of making laws and regulations;

“President” means the Lieutenant-Governor, or, in his absence, the member highest in official rank among those who hold office under the Crown present and presiding; and

“Secretary” means the officer appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor to perform the duties of Secretary to the Council, and includes every person for the time being exercising the functions of Secretary.

II.—Meetings of the Council.

2. When it appears to the Lieutenant-Governor that a sitting of the Council is expedient, he shall summon the Members by a notification published in the local Gazette.

3. The Council shall ordinarily meet at 11 A.M.

4. The Government Advocate shall sit wherever the President may appoint. Other Members shall sit according to priority of appointment, the junior Member being on the left hand of the President. Members appointed on the same day shall sit in the order in which their names appear in the notification of appointment.

5. The President may adjourn, without any discussion or vote, any meeting or business, whether there be a quorum present or not, to any future day or to any part of the same day.

6. The President shall preserve order, and all points of order shall be decided by him, no discussion thereupon being allowed.

7. A Member desiring to make any observations on any subject before the Council shall address the President without rising from his chair.

8. No Member shall be heard except upon business then regularly before the Council, or by permission of the President specially obtained, in explanation of what he had said in a previous debate.

9. Except in discussing verbal amendments, when the Council is settling the several clauses of a Bill, or to explain what he has before said if it has been misunderstood, no Member other than the mover shall speak more

than once upon a question; but the mover shall, if he has spoken to the question when making his motion, be allowed a reply.

10. A Member who has spoken on a motion may speak again upon any amendment thereof afterwards moved, and, if the matter before the Council be an amendment of a Bill, the Members in charge of the Bill shall be entitled to speak a second time after the mover of the amendment has replied.

11. The President may, in all cases, address the Council after the reply of the mover and before putting the question.

12. When, for the purpose of explanation during discussion or for any other sufficient reason, any Member has occasion to ask a question of another Member on any measure then under the consideration of the Council, he shall ask the question through the President.

13. Any Member may speak at the request and on behalf of another Member who is unable to express himself in English.

14. On every motion before the Council the question shall be put by the President, and shall be decided by a majority of votes.

After the question is put, no further discussion upon it shall be allowed.

15. Any Member may ask for any papers or returns connected with any Bill before the Council. The President shall determine, either at the time or at the meeting of the Council next following, whether the papers or returns asked for can be given.

16. Communications on matters connected with any Bill before the Council may be addressed to the Lieutenant-Governor or to the Secretary, and must in either case be sent to the Secretary.

17. The Secretary shall either cause such communications to be printed and send a copy to each Member, or circulate them for the perusal of each Member.

18. Any Member who wishes to make an original motion, or move an amendment of a Bill, shall give notice of his intention at the next previous meeting, or send notice in writing to the Secretary not less than three days before the day of the meeting at which he intends to introduce the motion.

III.—Introduction and Publication of Bills.

19. When a motion for leave to introduce a Bill into Council in accordance with the provisions of section 38 of the Indian Councils Act, 1861, has been carried, the Bill, with a full statement of Objects and Reasons, shall, if not already prepared, be prepared by the Secretary in consultation with the mover.

20. The Secretary shall then cause the Bill, together with the Statement of Objects and Reasons, to be printed, and shall send a copy to each Member.

21. The Council may, at any time after leave to introduce a Bill has been granted, direct that the Bill be published in such manner as the Council thinks fit.

If any Member is unacquainted with English, the Secretary shall cause the Bill and the Statement of Objects and Reasons to be translated into a language the Member understands, for his use.

22. When a Bill is introduced, or on some subsequent occasion, the Member in charge of it shall make one or more of the following motions:—

- (a) that it be referred to a Select Committee, or
- (b) that it be taken into consideration by the Council either at once or at some future day to be then mentioned, or
- (c) that it be circulated for the purpose of eliciting opinion thereon.

23. When any motion mentioned in the preceding rule has been carried, the Bill, together with a Statement of Objects and Reasons, shall, unless it has been previously published by order of the Lieutenant-Governor under the next following rule, and has not been materially altered since the date of that publication, be published in English, and also in the Vernacular (unless otherwise directed by the Council), in the local Gazette.

24. A Bill may at any time be sent to the Secretary to be printed and circulated under Rule 17. The Lieutenant-Governor, if he see fit, may order such Bill to be published in the local Gazette, together with the Statement of Objects and Reasons.

IV.—Select Committees.

25. The Government Advocate shall be a Member of every Select Committee.

26. The other Members of every Select Committee shall be named by the Council when the Bill is referred or at any subsequent meeting.

The Member in charge of the Bill shall be Chairman of the Committee and, in the case of equality of votes, shall have a second or casting vote.

27. The Select Committee shall, unless ordered to report sooner, make a report upon the Bill referred to as soon as possible after the close of two months from its publication in the local Gazette. Such report may be either preliminary or final.

28. The Select Committee shall in their report state—

- (i) whether the publication ordered by these rules, or by the Council, has taken place, and the date on which it has taken place; and
- (ii) whether the Bill has been so altered as to require republication.

29. The Secretary shall cause every Report of a Select Committee to be printed and circulated to each Member. If the President so direct, he shall also cause the Report with the amended Bill to be published in the local Gazette.

30. The report of the Select Committee on a Bill shall be presented to the Council by the Member in charge of the Bill, and shall be taken into consideration by the Council as soon as conveniently may be; but any Member may object to its being so taken into consideration when he has not been furnished, one week beforehand, with a copy of the report; and such objection shall prevail, unless the President, in exercise of his power to suspend any of these rules, allows the report to be taken into consideration.

V.—Consideration and Amendments of Bills.

31. When a Bill is taken into consideration by the Council, any Member may propose an amendment of such Bill.

32. When notice of an amendment is given under Rule 18, the amendment shall be printed and circulated to each Member.

33. Amendments shall ordinarily be considered in the order of the clauses to which they respectively relate.

34. Notwithstanding anything in the foregoing rules, it shall be in the discretion of the President, when a motion that a Bill be taken into consideration has been carried, to submit the Bill, or any part of the Bill, to the Council, clause by clause. When this procedure is adopted, the President shall call each clause separately, and, when the amendments relating to it have been dealt with, shall put the question "that this clause, or (as the case may be) this clause as amended, stand part of the Bill."

35. Any Member may move that a Bill which has been amended by the Council, or by a Select Committee, be re-published or re-committed, and, if the Council so decide, the President shall order the Bill to be re-published or re-committed, as the case may be.

36. If no amendment be made when a Bill is taken into consideration by the Council, the Bill may at once be passed.

If any amendment be made, any Member may object to the passing of the Bill at the same meeting; and such objection shall prevail, unless the President, in exercise of his power to suspend any of these rules, allows the Bill to pass.

Where the objection prevails, the Bill shall be brought forward again at a future meeting and may then be passed with or without further amendment.

37. At any time during the progress of a Bill it may be moved by the Member who brought in the same, or other Member for the time being in charge of the Bill, that it be withdrawn. If such motion be carried, the Bill shall be withdrawn accordingly.

VI.—Passing of Bills, Publication of Acts.

38. When a Bill is passed by the Council, it shall be submitted by the Secretary to the President of the meeting at which the Bill was passed for his signature and submitted to the Lieutenant-Governor for him to declare that he assents to or withholds his assent from the same, in accordance with the provisions of section 39 of the Indian Councils Act, 1861.

39. If the Lieutenant-Governor records his assent upon the Bill, an authentic copy shall be submitted as soon as may be for the assent of the Governor-General. When the Governor-General has signified his assent, the Bill shall be published as soon as possible in the local Gazette under the signature of the Secretary as an Act of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council which has received the assent of the Governor-General and has the force of law.

VII.—Duties of Secretary.

40. At least two days before each meeting of the Council the Secretary shall send to each Member a list of the business to be brought forward at such meeting.

41. The Secretary shall keep a journal, in which all the proceedings of the Council shall be fairly entered.

The journal shall be submitted after each meeting to the President for his confirmation and signature, and, when so signed, shall be the record of the proceedings of the Council.

42. The Secretary shall also prepare a report of the proceedings of the Council at each of its meetings, including an abstract of the observations of the Members, and publish it in the local Gazette as soon as possible after the meeting. He shall send a copy of such report to each Member and also to the Secretary to the Government of India in the Legislative Department.

43. It shall be the duty of the Secretary—

- (1) to perform all acts required of him by the preceding rules;
- (2) to draft all Bills originated by the Local Government, the Statements of Objects and Reasons, and the reports of the Select Committees to which such Bills are referred;
- (3) to take charge of the copies of the Bills to which the Lieutenant-Governor has declared his assent;
- (4) to keep the records of the Council;
- (5) to keep a list of the business for the time being before the Council;
- (6) to superintend the printing of all papers printed in pursuance of these rules;
- (7) to assist the Council and all Committees in such manner as they may direct;
- (8) to examine all Bills and to report to the President on those which contain clauses trenching on subjects coming within section 43 of the Indian Councils Act, 1861;
- (9) to write all letters which the Council or the President, or any Select Committee, directs to be written.

44. All acts which the Secretary is required to do may be done by any Secretary, or Under Secretary, or Assistant Secretary of the Government.

VIII.—Miscellaneous.

45. Strangers may be admitted into the Council Chamber during the sitting of the Council on the order of the President.

Application for orders of admission may be made to the Secretary.

46. The President, on the motion of any Member or otherwise, may direct, at any time during a sitting of the Council, that all or any strangers present shall withdraw.

47. Any paper relating to any measure before the Council may be published by order of the President. Copies of papers so published shall be sold at such rates as may be fixed by the Secretary.

48. Any Bill respecting which no motion has been made in the Council for two years may, by order of the President, be removed from the list of business.

49. The President for sufficient reason may suspend any of the foregoing rules.

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APPENDIX G.

OFFICIAL CORRESPONDENCE AND
SECRETARIAL BUSINESS

- I. Rules for the Conduct and Disposal of the Official Correspondence of a District.
- II. Distribution of Business amongst the Secretaries to Government and the Financial Commissioner.

APPENDIX G.

I.

RULES FOR THE CONDUCT AND DISPOSAL OF THE OFFICIAL CORRESPONDENCE OF A DISTRICT

I.—GENERAL.

(i).—*General Correspondence.*

- (a) Questions regarding Judicial establishments or the grant of Magisterial or Judicial powers which are to be submitted to the Lieutenant-Governor will be referred through the Judicial Commissioner in Upper Burma and through the Chief Court in Lower Burma. All questions appertaining to revenue will be referred through Commissioners or the Settlement Commissioner and the Financial Commissioner. Other questions will be referred for the Lieutenant-Governor's orders through the Head of the department concerned, by whom the orders received will be communicated to local officers through Commissioners or the Settlement Commissioner, except in (1) purely departmental and (2) unimportant matters, when they may be sent direct.
- (b) All important correspondence between the Head of a department and a Deputy Commissioner will pass through the Commissioner. If the Head of a department considers that a question submitted to him direct by a Deputy Commissioner is important, he will send the papers to the Commissioner for remarks.
- (c) All important correspondence between the Head of a department and his subordinates will, subject to the detailed rules below, pass through the Deputy Commissioner; provided that, if the Deputy Commissioner is absent from the station and the matter is urgent, a departmental officer may write to his departmental superior direct, noting on his letter that he writes in the absence of the Deputy Commissioner. In such a case the papers will be laid before the Deputy Commissioner immediately on his return to headquarters.

NOTE.—Matters of routine, periodical returns, &c., may continue to pass direct between the Head of a department and Deputy Commissioners. It is desired, however, as far as possible, to secure to Commissioners and to Deputy Commissioners, as heads of the administration of their respective charges in all branches, an opportunity of expressing their views on all matters which are not of a purely departmental or routine character.

- (d) In case of a difference of opinion between the Head of a department and a Deputy Commissioner the latter may request a reference to the Commissioner.

(ii).—*Annual Reports.*

The district annual reports in all departments will be submitted to the Head of the department, or to the Secretariat through the Deputy Commissioner and Commissioner, who will record any remarks they consider necessary and send on the reports without undue delay.

(iii).—*Petitions.*

- (a) Commissioners and Deputy Commissioners will not send up to the local Government any petitions which they can themselves dispose of.
- (b) Petitions in appeal must be accompanied by a copy of the orders appealed against, otherwise they will ordinarily be returned.
- (c) Petitions to the Lieutenant-Governor appealing against the order of a Deputy Commissioner or other officer not above the rank of a Deputy Commissioner, will ordinarily be returned for presentation to the Commissioner or Head of the department concerned.
- (d) Petitions addressed to the Lieutenant-Governor direct in the first instance, on matters within the competence of local officers, will ordinarily be returned to the petitioner for presentation to the proper local authorities.
- (e) When, under exceptional circumstances, it is thought right to take action on a petition presented in the first instance to the Lieutenant-Governor, it will ordinarily be forwarded to the Commissioner or Head of department concerned for report.

II.—FOREST DEPARTMENT.

The rules affecting the Forest Department are briefly as follows:—

The Deputy Conservator of Forests is the Assistant of the Deputy Commissioner for forest matters. Correspondence on matters of purely professional detail and accounts may pass direct between the Conservator and the Deputy Conservator of Forests; correspondence on other matters will pass through the Deputy Commissioner whose district is concerned and, if the question involves general principles or is otherwise important, through the Commissioner also. The Deputy Commissioner may, with the approval of the Commissioner, authorise the District Forest Officer to correspond direct with the Conservator generally or concerning any special branch of his work; in such cases the District Forest Officer will submit a weekly abstract of his correspondence to the Deputy Commissioner. In cases of emergency the Conservator may issue orders to the Deputy Conservator of Forests direct, but will send a copy to the Deputy Commissioner. He may correspond demi-officially directly with the Deputy Conservator of Forests, but the latter will acquaint the Deputy Commissioner with any communications so sent

which are of the nature of orders. If the Forest Officer is subordinate to more than one Commissioner or Deputy Commissioner, the control of each of the latter extends only to matters affecting his local jurisdiction. The Annual Forest Report will be sent by the Deputy Conservator of Forests to the Deputy Commissioner to whom he is subordinate, by him to the Commissioner, and by the Commissioner to the Conservator. If the Deputy Conservator of Forests is subordinate to more than one Deputy Commissioner, he will submit a copy to each or arrange to pass the report on without delay from one Deputy Commissioner to the other. Technical questions of forest management will be referred to the Conservator without the intervention of the Deputy Commissioner or Commissioner, and questions of detail will not be referred to the Commissioner, except in the case of differences of opinion between the Deputy Commissioner and the Conservator.

III.—JAILS DEPARTMENT.

- (a) Superintendents of district jails will consult Deputy Commissioners before corresponding with the Inspector-General of Jails on any subject except—

- (i) matters of routine;
- (ii) matters connected with the medical treatment of sick prisoners.

Correspondence on the unexcepted subjects between Superintendents and the Inspector-General of Jails will pass through Deputy Commissioners, and Deputy Commissioners will send important letters through Commissioners.

- (b) Superintendents of Central Jails, other than the Rangoon and Insein Jails, will consult Deputy Commissioners before corresponding with the Inspector-General of Jails on—

- (i) judicial questions; or
- (ii) important financial questions (as *e.g.*, the provision of food-supplies); or
- (iii) questions of accommodation for prisoners.

All letters on these subjects and on any other important question will pass through Deputy Commissioners, and specially important letters will be sent by Deputy Commissioners through Commissioners.

- (c) The Superintendents of the Rangoon and Insein Central Jails will correspond direct with the Inspector-General of Jails.
- (d) Correspondence between Deputy Commissioners and Superintendents of Jails will be conducted by memoranda recorded on the original jail files.

IV.—POLICE DEPARTMENT.

The existing rules affecting the Police Department are reproduced and amplified in the following paragraphs:—

- (a) Correspondence relating to returns, accounts, and matters of departmental routine will pass between the Inspector-General of

Police and District Superintendents of Police direct. All other correspondence, except reminders, will pass through the Deputy Commissioner, and, if important, through the Commissioner, communications from the Inspector-General of Police being addressed to the "Deputy Commissioner of....."
(for District Superintendent.)"

So far as is possible, orders issued by the Deputy Commissioner to the District Superintendent of Police will be recorded in an order-book. Official correspondence between these officers or between them and their subordinates is prohibited.

The Deputy Commissioner may order further inquiry or call for further information with respect to any communication forwarded by the District Superintendent of Police before sending it on. He will indorse all correspondence which passes through his hands, and may add thereto his opinion or any suggestions which he desires to offer, or any orders which he may wish to issue to the District Superintendent of Police in connection therewith. The Deputy Commissioner may authorise the District Superintendent of Police to forward any communications direct to the Inspector-General of Police during the absence of the Deputy Commissioner. The District Superintendent of Police will indorse such communications—

"Forwarded direct in absence of the Deputy Commissioner under the instructions of that Officer."

Important correspondence, *e.g.*, regarding any change in the strength or distribution of the police of a district, will pass through the Commissioner.

- (b) It is the duty of the District Superintendent of Police to obey the orders of the Deputy Commissioner; but, if dissatisfied, he may refer the question through the Deputy Commissioner to the Commissioner, who may either dispose of it himself, or, if necessary, refer it to the Inspector-General of Police, with his own opinion.
- (c) These rules apply, *mutatis mutandis*, to the Deputy Commissioner and Battalion Commandant or Assistant Commandant of Military Police in Upper Burma. In Lower Burma the Military Police are departmentally under the control of Adjutants; but it is impossible for them to exercise so close a supervision as if their charges were only one district; the District Superintendent of Police is expected to take interest in the discipline and comfort of the Military Police in his district and freely communicate his opinion to the Adjutant. In all matters, except those of mere routine, Adjutants will correspond through the Deputy Commissioner of the district concerned.

V.—SETTLEMENT AND RECORDS DEPARTMENTS.

- (a) Settlement Officers in charge of regular or summary settlements will write direct to the Settlement Commissioner and not through

the Commissioner of the Division. This does not, however, extend to diaries, or to final settlement reports, which will continue to be submitted through the Divisional Commissioner.

- (b) Deputy Commissioners in charge of settlements or sections of settlements shall correspond with the Settlement Commissioner, and not with the Director of Land Records and Agriculture on subjects connected with these settlements, through the Divisional Commissioner.
- (c) In short, the Settlement Commissioner will in future deal entirely with settlements and everything pertaining thereto, and orders of the Local Government on settlement matters will be communicated by him to Commissioners and Settlement Officers.
- (d) In the Land Records Department letters on routine subjects, such as re-appropriations in the budget, progress reports, and periodical returns, the supply of instruments or agricultural products, and the like, may pass between the Deputy Commissioner and the Director of Land Records and Agriculture through the Commissioner under flying seal.

VI.—MEDICAL AND SANITARY DEPARTMENTS.

Correspondence on professional matters, or matters of ordinary routine will pass between the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals and the Civil Surgeon direct; all other correspondence will pass through the Deputy Commissioner and, if important, through the Commissioner also. Correspondence between the Deputy Commissioner and Civil Surgeon will be conducted by memoranda recorded on the original files and not by official letter.

VII.—EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

- (a) Correspondence between the Director of Public Instruction or an Inspector of Schools and the Deputy Commissioner will, if any principle of importance is involved, pass through the Commissioner. All correspondence between the Director of Public Instruction and local bodies (Municipal and Town Committees) will pass through the Deputy Commissioner, unless the Deputy Commissioner is President of the local body. Correspondence between the Director of Public Instruction or Inspectors of Schools and the Deputy Inspectors of Schools will generally pass through the Deputy Commissioner concerned; but on matters of office routine the correspondence will go direct. Correspondence between the Director of Public Instruction and Inspectors of Schools on other than routine matters will go through the Commissioner, and the Commissioner may, if he thinks fit, forward any letter through the Deputy Commissioner.
- (b) The annual report of each Deputy Inspector will be submitted by him to the Deputy Commissioner of the district. If he is subordinate to more than one Deputy Commissioner, he will first submit it to the Deputy Commissioner at whose headquarters he re-

sides, and he will request that Deputy Commissioner to pass it on to the other Deputy Commissioners concerned. If all the Deputy Commissioners concerned are subordinate to the same Commissioner, the last Deputy Commissioner through whose hands the report passes will submit it to the Commissioner, and he will send it on to the Inspector of Schools. If all the Deputy Commissioners concerned are not subordinate to the same Commissioner, the last Deputy Commissioner through whose hands the report passes will send it to the Inspector of Schools, and the Inspector will arrange to consult the Commissioners concerned on any matter of importance which occurs in the report before submitting his report to the Director of Public Instruction.

VIII.—PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT.

(a) Communications between the Executive Engineer and Superintending Engineer relating to district works will, when they are—

- (i) proposals for the initiation of new works;
- (ii) proposals for alterations in sanctioned works, or in the district road scheme;
- (iii) proposals for the transfer or re-appropriation of funds allotted to works;

(iv) proposals for giving priority in execution to one work before another or as to the order in which sanctioned works are to be taken up—pass through the Deputy Commissioner under flying seal, and the Deputy Commissioner will be at liberty to record thereon his own remarks and suggestions, to which due regard will always be paid by the Public Works Officers concerned. The Deputy Commissioner may forward any reference to the Superintending Engineer through the Commissioner; and in matters of importance, or regarding which the Commissioner may have given him special instructions, he shall be bound so to forward the correspondence.* This rule is not intended to preclude the Executive Engineer from holding direct correspondence with his departmental superior preliminary to formal proposals of the nature specified in (i), (ii), (iii), or (iv).

(b) The Executive Engineer will furnish the Deputy Commissioner with any information he may call for regarding district works, and will inform him of the progress of all such works and of all proposals for new works and important alterations or repairs of existing works, and will be guided as far as possible by the Deputy Commissioner's advice and suggestions. Formal letters on such matters should be avoided. The communications should be either informal or conducted by office memoranda, with a half margin space for the Deputy Commissioner's remarks. If the Executive Engineer takes exception to the Deputy Commissioner's views on any matter, he may refer it to the Superintending Engineer through the Deputy Commissioner as provided in Rule (a).

* *N.B.*—If the Deputy Commissioner is absent from the station and the matter is urgent, the Executive Engineer may despatch his reference to the Superintending Engineer direct, noting on it that he does so in the absence of the Deputy Commissioner, and he will then lay the case before the Deputy Commissioner immediately on the return of the latter to his headquarters.

(c) All correspondence between the Executive Engineer and local bodies will pass through the Deputy Commissioner.

(d) If the Superintending Engineer initiates any proposals regarding the execution of new district works, the transfer or re-appropriation of funds, or any matters of local administrative importance, he will obtain the views of the Commissioner before referring the questions to the Chief Engineer or issuing orders to the Executive Engineer.

(e) The progress reports of district works under the Executive Engineer will be forwarded by him to the Superintending Engineer direct and by the Superintending Engineer to the Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner, who will return them with any remarks which they may wish to record on them.

(f) All plans and estimates for major and important minor works in the district will be countersigned by the Head of the department concerned, and those not appertaining to the Military, Postal, Telegraph, Police, Jail, and Public Works Departments will also be countersigned by both the Deputy Commissioner and Commissioner.

(g) All correspondence not covered by any of the foregoing rules may pass between the Executive Engineer and Superintending Engineer direct.

IX.—FINANCIAL.

All reference and applications addressed to the Secretariat in connection with leave, allowances, pensions, &c., references involving the sanction of expenditure from public funds, transfer of budget grants, grant or recovery of advances, loss of Government money, and all applications for alteration of establishment will be submitted through the Accountant-General. When the Government money lost consists of, or includes, revenue under the control of the Financial Commissioner, the application should be submitted through the Financial Commissioner as well as through the Accountant-General.

II.

DISTRIBUTION OF BUSINESS AMONGST THE SECRETARIES TO GOVERNMENT AND THE FINANCIAL COMMISSIONER.

The following list of subjects dealt with by each Secretary to Government was published on January 13, 1906, in the *Burma Gazette*. It effects certain changes, and supplies information in much greater detail than the statement on page 117 of this volume.

CHIEF SECRETARY.

(a) POLITICAL OR FOREIGN DEPARTMENT.

Foreign relations. Extradition and Rendition (except Colonial Rendition, which is dealt with by Secretary). Political business. General administration of Shan States and Chin Hills (but letters on special subjects should be

addressed to the Secretary concerned, *e.g.*, letters about Forests to the Revenue Secretary and letters about Hospitals to the Secretary). Arakan Hill District Laws Regulation. Chin Hills Regulation. Kachin Hill Tribes Regulation and North-east Frontier. Burma Frontier Tribes Regulation. Boundary Pillars. Passports. Foreigners Act and Frontier Crossing Regulation. State Prisoners. Political pensions.

(b) MILITARY DEPARTMENT.

Cantonments. Volunteers. Other Military business (except Military Works).

(c) HOME DEPARTMENT.

Chief Court.

Burma Commission.

Government Advocate.

Assistant Government Advocate.

Assistant Legislative Secretary.

Provincial Civil Service.

Subordinate Civil Service.

Township Judicial Service.

} Appointments, transfers, leave, civil
and criminal judicial powers, de-
partmental examinations, etc., of —.

Clerkship Rules. Civil List. Warrant of Precedence. Civil uniforms. Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Act. Burmese Calendar and Burmese New Year. Despatch of public servants to Kasauli. Language examinations. Examinations of Irrigation Department officers for Magisterial powers. Appointment of Honorary Magistrates (Secretary deals with their establishments). Special Magistrates. Village Act and Regulation. Towns Act and Regulation. Cantonment Magistrates. Internal politics. Alterations of areas of general or judicial jurisdiction. Constitution of Courts. Police. Establishments of officers employed in general administration, *e.g.*, Commissioners, Deputy Commissioners, Subdivisional Officers, and Township Officers (except bailiffs and process servers with whom Secretary deals and Treasury establishments with which Revenue Secretary deals). Naturalization of aliens. Nominations to Legislative Council. General business of Burma Legislative Council (but each Secretary deals with Bills or Acts which relate exclusively to his departments). General internal administration. Archæology (including pagodas and pagoda trusts) and Epigraphy. Treasure Trove. Fine Arts. Gazetteer.

REVENUE SECRETARY.

(a) REVENUE AND AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT.

Land Revenue. Land Survey. Land Settlement. Town Lands. Land Records. Land Acquisition. Grants and other dispositions of land. Agriculture and Horticulture. Meteorology. Scarcity. Famine. Irrigation rates and water-rates (but Public Works Secretary deals with Irrigation Rules). Forests. Veterinary. Kheddah. Elephants Preservation Act. Cattle Markets. Ferries.

(b) FINANCE DEPARTMENT.

General Finance and Accounts. Treasuries (including establishments). District Cess and District Funds. Stamps. Excise. Opium. Income Tax. Salt. Coinage and Currency. Taxation. Provincial Settlement. Loans (other than Municipal and Port). Alienations of revenue. Advances of Officers. Security. Defalcations. Exchange Compensation allowance. Travelling allowances. Maymyo Hill allowances and rules. Carriage of ponies, etc., at cost of Government. Local and house allowances. Pensions and gratuities (except Political pensions with which Chief Secretary deals). Circuit-houses. Tents. Liveries. Cattle Trespass Act.

(c) COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY DEPARTMENT.

Internal Trade Statistics. Sea-borne Trade Statistics. Customs. Merchandise marks. Patents, Inventions, and Designs. Economic Products. Commercial Exhibitions. Weights and Measures. Printing and Stationery (including supply of *Burma Gazette*). Geology. Minerals (including mineral oil). Fisheries. Telegraphs and Telephones. Post Office. Supply of Stores. Immigration and Emigration. Practical Arts and Museums. India Companies Act.

SECRETARY.

(a) HOME DEPARTMENT.

Bailiffs and process servers. Establishments of all purely Judicial officers, such as Chief Court, Judicial Commissioner, Upper Burma, Divisional, District and Township Judges, Small Cause Courts, Honorary Magistrates, etc. (but judicial establishments of Commissioners and Deputy Commissioners, except bailiffs and process servers, are dealt with by Chief Secretary). Establishments of Law Officers. Duties of Law Officers. Appointment of Government Prosecutors (other than Government Advocate and Assistant Government Advocate). Colonial Rendition. Crown Prosecutions. Judicial Proceedings of the Lieutenant-Governor as a High Court. Suits by or against Government. Reports and Statements of Civil and Criminal Justice. Supply of Law Reports, Acts and Law books. Courts Manuals, Upper and Lower Burma. Rules of Judicial practice and procedure. Sanctions to refunds to accused persons of fines paid away in compensation. Advocates and legal practitioners. Preservation and destruction of judicial records. Translations of Acts. Appointments of judicial or legal officers, other than those dealt with by Chief Secretary. All judicial matters not specifically assigned to the Chief Secretary. Lunatics. Penal Settlements. Poisons Act. Lepers. Jails (including petitions for clemency). European Vagrancy. Arms Act. Destruction of wild beasts. Escheats and Intestate Property. Ecclesiastical. Reformatories. Registration of deeds. Copyright. Medical. Sanitation. Plague. Education. Municipalities and Town Funds. Books and Publications. Maps. Census. Game Preservation. Royal Humane Society. Tramways within Municipalities or Cantonments. Reg-

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istration of Births, Deaths, and Marriages. Marriage Acts and licenses thereunder.

(b) MARINE DEPARTMENT.

Marine appointments and establishments. Government launches and vessels. Marine Surveys and Dangers to Navigation. Marine Transport. Other Marine business.

(c) COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY DEPARTMENT.

Ports. Pilots. Merchant Shipping. Light-houses. Native Passenger Ships. Inland Steam Vessels Act. Petroleum and Carbide of Calcium (Petroleum Act). Explosives. Factories. Steam Boilers and Prime Movers.

(d) LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT.

Legislation which is not specially concerned with any department dealt with by another Secretary.

PUBLIC WORKS SECRETARY.

(a) PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT.

Provincial and Incorporated Local Fund Buildings. Provincial and Incorporated Local Fund Roads. Provincial and Incorporated Local Fund Miscellaneous Public Improvements. (Water works, sewage works, etc.). Irrigation Works and Rules. Navigation Works and River Conservancy. Navigation Rules and Tolls. Applications for Licenses under the Electricity Act.

(b) MILITARY DEPARTMENT.

Military Works.

RAILWAY SECRETARY.

Railways (including Railway Surveys). Tramways outside Municipalities or Cantonments.

THE FINANCIAL COMMISSIONER.

The following account of the subjects dealt with by the Financial Commissioner is reprinted from Revenue Department Circular No. 44 of 1902, which supersedes all other circulars relating to the same topic. The list of subjects does not apply to the Shan States, the Chin Hills, and the Kachin Hill Tracts, except in regard to agriculture, crops, and veterinary matters.

LIST OF SUBJECTS.

(1) *Agricultural loans*, inclusive of everything connected with the working of the Agriculturists Loans Act, 1884, and the Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883.

Exception.—References regarding allotments of funds for loan purposes should be addressed to the Director of Land Records and Agriculture.

(2) *Akunwuns*.—Training, appointment, transfer, leave, and reversion of *Akunwuns*.

(3) *Budgets* of receipts under the major heads—

I.—Land Revenue.

III.—Salt.

IV.—Stamps.

V.—Excise.

VIII.—Income tax.

X.—Registration.

(4) *Confidential reports* on Settlement and Assistant Settlement Officers, Superintendents of Land Records and *Akunwuns*. The reports on Settlement and Assistant Settlement Officers should be submitted, in the first instance, to the Settlement Commissioner and reports on Superintendents of Land Records to the Director of Land Records and Agriculture.

(5) *Customs*, including everything connected with the working of the Sea Customs Act, 1878, the Indian Merchandise Marks Act, 1889, and the Indian Tariff Act, 1894, and Coast Lights dues.

(6) *Defalcations* in regard to revenue under the control of the Financial Commissioner. Reports on this subject should be addressed to the Revenue Secretary, but sent under flying seal through the Accountant-General and the Financial Commissioner.

(7) *Excise* (including opium), inclusive of everything connected with the administration of the Opium Act, 1878, and the Excise Act, 1896, and the Rules thereunder.

(8) *Ferries*, inclusive of everything connected with the administration of the Burma Ferries Act, 1898, and the Rules thereunder.

(9) *Fisheries*, inclusive of everything connected with the administration of the Lower Burma Fisheries Act, 1875, and the Rules thereunder.

(10) *Income-tax*, inclusive of everything connected with the administration of Act II of 1886 and the Rules thereunder.

(11) *Indents* for mathematical instruments other than those required for medical purposes.

Exception.—Indents for instruments required by the Settlement or Land Records Department should be addressed to the Settlement Commissioner or Director of Land Records and Agriculture, as the case may be.

(12) *Irrigation*.

(13) *Land Acquisition*, inclusive of everything connected with the administration of the Land Acquisition Act, 1894, and the Directions thereunder.

Exception.—Applications for the issue of notifications under sections 4 and 6 of the Land Acquisition Act, 1894, should be sent direct to the Revenue Secretary.

(14) *Land Revenue*, inclusive of everything connected with the administration of the (Lower) Burma Land and Revenue Act, 1876, the Upper Burma Land and Revenue Regulation, 1889, the Lower Burma Town and Village Lands Act, 1898, and the Rules thereunder.

Exception.—Correspondence in connection with Land Records and Settlement work and all matters connected therewith, *e.g.*, demarcation survey, establishments, etc., should be addressed respectively to the Director of Land Records and Agriculture and the Settlement Commissioner, who deal with these subjects under the control and supervision of the Financial Commissioner.

(15) Land Sale and Rent Funds of Rangoon, Akyab, and Moulmein.

(16) *Locks and keys*.—Reports regarding loss of keys and their renewal or repair.

(17) *Mines and mineral products*, inclusive of everything connected with the administration of the Indian Mines Act, 1901, and all Rules for the grant of mining concessions.

Exception.—References regarding jade, rubies, and all other precious stones and everything connected with the working of the Upper Burma Ruby Regulation, 1887, should be addressed direct to the Revenue Secretary.

(18) *Pensions and retirements*.—The Financial Commissioner is Chief Controlling Revenue authority in Burma for the purposes of the Pensions Act, 1871, and the powers conferred on the Local Government by Article 998 of the Civil Service Regulations have been delegated to him with the sanction of the Government of India.

(19) *Registration*, inclusive of everything connected with the administration of the Indian Registration Act, 1887 (under which the Financial Commissioner is Inspector-General of Registration) and the Upper Burma Registration Regulation, 1897, and the Rules thereunder.

(20) *Registration of births, deaths, and marriages*, inclusive of all statistical work connected with the administration of the Births, Deaths and Marriages Registration Act, 1886, under which the Financial Commissioner is Registrar-General of Births, Deaths and Marriages.

(21) *Sea-borne trade*.—Communications regarding inland trade should be addressed to the Director of Land Records and Agriculture.

(22) *Stamps*, inclusive of everything connected with the administration of the Court Fees Act, 1870, and the Indian Stamp Act, 1899.

(23) *Training in Survey and Land Records Work* of Assistant Commissioners, Extra Assistant Commissioners and *Myoôks*.

(24) *Transfer and leave* of all Extra Assistant Commissioners and *Myoôks* whose services have been placed at the Financial Commissioner's disposal.

Exception.—References regarding the transfer and leave of officers of the Settlement Department should be addressed to the Settlement Commissioner and in the case of officers of the Land Records Department to the Director of Land Records and Agriculture.

(25) *Treasury* other than subjects dealt with by the Accountant-General.

References in regard to the following subjects should, in addition to those mentioned above, be addressed to the Director of Land Records and Agriculture:—

(a) Arts and industries.

(b) Agriculture and horticulture (statistics, shows, societies, experiments, etc.).

(c) Crops, prices, and weather reports.

(d) Economic products.

(e) Scarcity and famine.

(f) Survey schools.

(g) Veterinary (horse and cattle breeding, cattle disease, etc.).

(h) Village headmen's schemes for revenue collection.

APPENDIX H.

ABSTRACT OF THE RULES FOR
ORDINARY PENSIONS APPLI-
CABLE TO GOVERNMENT
OFFICIALS IN
BURMA

APPENDIX H.

ABSTRACT OF THE RULES FOR ORDINARY PENSIONS APPLI- CABLE TO GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS IN BURMA

The following is an abstract of Chapters XV. to XXI. of the *Civil Service Regulations*, Fourth Edition, 1902, of the Government of India, as modified by the *Burma Supplement to the Civil Service Regulations*, 1903.

In preparing the abstract, I have been guided by the following principles:—

1. I have retained the original numbering of the paragraphs, so that, if any one wishes to consult the omitted paragraphs, an easy reference is afforded.

2. The omissions are of three kinds: (a) the omission of whole paragraphs, (b) the omission of portions of a paragraph or of certain words in a paragraph, (c) the omission of foot-notes to paragraphs. In order that it may be perfectly clear what is the character of the material omitted, I give the following examples:—

(a) A whole paragraph is omitted when it has no reference to Burma or when it refers to some small exceptions to a stated rule. For instance, Par. 375 is omitted because it refers only to Officiating Deputy Magistrate-Collectors in Bengal,—a matter completely foreign to Burma; and Par. 448 is omitted because it merely makes an exception to the general rule for medical certificates in connection with Invalid Pensions, in favour of signallers in the Indian and Indo-European Telegraph Departments,—a matter affecting so small a number of persons in Burma that the general rule may well stand for the purpose of this Report without any note of the exception.

(b) A portion of a paragraph is omitted or some words in a paragraph are omitted when the omitted portion or words do not refer to Burma.

(c) Foot-notes are omitted on the principle stated above.

3. I have occasionally added a sentence or summarised a paragraph in my own words. Wherever this has been done, the sentence or words are enclosed in square brackets.

ORDINARY PENSIONS.

CHAPTER XV.—GENERAL RULES.

SECTION I.—EXTENT OF APPLICATION.

349. The conditions of service of officers of the following classes include special rules for pension which are laid down in the [*Civil Service Regulations*]:

(a) Judges of the High Courts; (b) Barristers holding [certain specified appointments]; (c) Members of the Indian Civil Service; (d) Statutory Civil Servants; (e) Ecclesiastical Officers; (f) Civil Engineers and Telegraph Officers; (g) State Railway Establishments; (h) Bengal Covenanted Pilots; (i) Police Officers drawing less than Rs. 20 a month; (j) Port Blair Police; (k) Civil Veterinary Department; (l) Burma Military Police.

350. The pensions of all other officers are regulated by the rules in this Part: Provided that it is open to a Local Government to rule that the service of any class of officers serving under it does not qualify for pension. The following appointments in Burma are non-pensionable: 1. *Ywathugyi* or village headman in Lower Burma; itinerant teachers; salaried copyists, unless they are also apprentice clerks; crews of steamers and steam launches belonging to the Government of Burma, engaged since January 1, 1885; copyist on Rs. 40 *per mensem* on the establishment of additional Judge, District Court, Mandalay; Revenue and Circle surveyors and chainmen and messengers attached to such surveyors; copyist on Rs. 60 *per mensem* on the establishment of the Court of Small Causes, Rangoon; *Thwethaukgyis* in Upper Burma whose duties are similar to those of *Ywathugyis* or village headmen in Lower Burma.

351. Future good conduct is an implied condition of every grant of a pension. The Government reserves to itself the right of withholding or withdrawing a pension, if the pensioner be convicted of serious crime or be guilty of grave misconduct.

SECTION II.—CASES IN WHICH CLAIMS ARE INADMISSIBLE.

352. In the following cases no claim to pension is admitted:—

(a) When an officer is appointed for a limited time only, or for a specified duty, on the completion of which he is to be discharged.

(b) When a person is employed temporarily on monthly wages without specified limit of time or duty; but a month's notice of discharge should be given to such a person, and his wages must be paid for any period by which such notice falls short of a month.

(c) When a person's whole time is not retained for the public service, but he is merely paid for work done for the State.

(d) When a public servant holds some other pensionable office, he earns no pension in respect of an office of the kind mentioned in clause (c) or in respect of duties paid for by a Local Allowance.

(e) When an officer serves under a covenant which contains no stipulation

regarding pension, unless the Government of India specially authorises an officer to count such service towards pension.

Misconduct or Inefficiency.—353. Pension may not be granted to an officer whom it is desired to remove for misconduct, insolvency, or inefficiency.

Claims of Widow.—354. (a) It being the duty of every Government officer himself to provide for his family, the Government recognises no claim by a widow on account of the services of her husband, and is almost invariably under the painful necessity of rejecting recommendations made in contravention of this rule.

(b) The submission of such recommendations, save under very extraordinary circumstances, is disapproved, as calculated only to give rise to hopes which cannot be fulfilled.

(c) In very exceptional cases the Government of India may grant compassionate gratuities to the families of Government servants left in indigent circumstances.

The conditions are—

- (a) that the amount of the annual charge shall be limited to Rs. 22,500;
- (b) that the amount of an individual grant shall be limited to a maximum gratuity, in exceptional circumstances, of Rs. 5,000, the precise amount in all cases being fixed according to the number in the family to be relieved and the particular necessities of the case: the amount of a year's pay of the deceased will, as a rule, be the maximum gratuity;
- (c) that the working head and support of the family to be relieved must be reported to have been a meritorious public servant, and the case will be regarded as strengthened if it can be shown that his life was shortened by the faithful discharge of his duties.
- (d) that the salary of the deceased must not have exceeded Rs. 750 a month, unless his premature death rendered it practically impossible for him to make a suitable provision for his family.

2. No *pension* will be granted from the fund, though in exceptional cases it might be found desirable to accord yearly grants for a limited period of time towards the education of children.

3. The fund will be cumulative, the unexpended balance being carried forward, provided that in no single year is the amount of Rs. 45,000 (or such lower amount as the Government of India may decide) exceeded.

Limitations.—355. (a) An officer cannot earn two pensions in the same office at the same time, or by the same continuous service.

(b) Two officers may not simultaneously count service in respect of the same office.

Military Service.—356. Service which is pensionable under Military Rules does not count; and an officer who is counting service for Military pension cannot simultaneously count service for Civil pension. [A few exceptions are made to this rule: they may be found on page 87 of the *Civil Service Regulations*].

357. The Government of India may, in special cases, allow service which is pensionable under Military rules to count for pension on the Inferior scale.

CHAPTER XVI.—CONDITIONS OF QUALIFYING SERVICE.

SECTION I.—DEFINITION OF QUALIFYING SERVICE.

Beginning of Service.—358. (a) Except for Compensation gratuity, an officer's service does not in the case of Superior service qualify till he has completed twenty years of age.

(b) In other cases, unless it be otherwise provided by special rule or contract, the service of every officer begins when he takes charge of the office to which he is first appointed.

359. The following exceptions are admitted to the twenty years' rule (358 a).—

(1) All officers appointed in England by the Secretary of State; "Indian College Engineers" [see Article 627 (e)]; and Police probationers appointed in India under the orders contained in the Despatch of the Secretary of State, No. 14 (Judicial), dated 15th March 1894.

(2) Signallers in the Indian and Indo-European Telegraph Department may count towards pension service rendered by them after they attain the age of eighteen years.

(3) Hospital Assistants count service from the date they pass the examination [which qualifies them for their posts].

360. In the case of Inferior service, service counts after the age of sixteen years.

Conditions of Qualification.—361. The service of an officer does not qualify for pension unless it conforms to the following three conditions:—

First.—The Service must be under Government.

Second.—The employment must be substantive and permanent.

Third.—The service must be paid by Government.

These three conditions are fully explained in the following Sections.

SECTION II.—FIRST CONDITION.

Service under Government.—362. The service of an officer does not qualify unless he is appointed and his duties and pay are regulated by the Government, or under conditions determined by the Government.

SECTION III.—SECOND CONDITION.

General Principles.—368. Service does not qualify unless the officer holds a substantive office on a permanent establishment; but upon such conditions as it may think fit in each case to impose, the Government of India may allow temporary service to count for pension, if the pension does not exceed ten rupees a month.

369. An establishment, the duties of which are not continuous, but are limited to certain fixed periods in each year, is not a temporary establishment.

Service in such an establishment, including the period during which the establishment is not employed, qualifies; but the concession of counting as service the period during which the establishment is not employed does not apply to an officer who was not on actual duty when the establishment was discharged, after completion of its work, or to an officer who was not on actual duty on the first day on which the establishment was again re-employed.

370. An officer transferred from a temporary to a permanent appointment can count his service in the temporary office, if, though at first created experimentally or temporarily, it eventually becomes permanent.

371. An officer without a substantive appointment officiating in an office which is vacant, or the permanent incumbent of which does not draw any part of the pay or count service, may, if he is confirmed without interruption in his service, count his officiating service.

Apprentices and Probationers.—372. Service as an Apprentice does not qualify, except in the following cases:—

Engineer or Examiner Apprentices	} in the Public Works Department.
Qualified students of the Thomason College under practical training	
Assistant Superintendent Apprentices in the Indian Telegraph Department.	

373. The service of a probationer who holds a substantive office and draws substantive pay qualifies. So does that of an officer who is on probation for a substantive office, if he is employed in a vacancy reserved for him, pending probation, and in which no other officer simultaneously counts service.

374. Police probationers and temporary and officiating Assistant Superintendents of Police in all Provinces count their service towards pension, provided they have passed their examinations, have served two years in the Department, and have attained the age of twenty years.

These restrictions do not apply to Police Probationers recruited in England after competitive examination, in whose case service counts from the date on which they report their arrival in India, or to Probationers recruited in India under the orders in the Despatch of the Secretary of State, No. 14, dated the 15th March 1894, whose service counts from the date they take charge of the office to which they are appointed.

Permanent Officer Deputed.—376. An officer on a permanent establishment detached on temporary duty, on the understanding that, when the temporary duty ceases, he will return to the permanent establishment, counts his detached service.

377. The preceding Article permits the temporary suspension of the second condition of qualifying service which forms the subject of this Section; it does not authorise any relaxation of the first condition (Section II), or the third condition (Section IV), and, in particular, must not be understood to countenance any modification of the rules which apply to an officer on Foreign Service. [The rules for officers on foreign service may be found on pp. 187–200 of the *Civil Service Regulations*, 1902.]

378. Service as Private Secretary to the Governor-General, a Governor or a Lieutenant-Governor, qualifies, provided that the officer belonged, before

his appointment as Private Secretary, to the Civil Service of Government, whether the Indian Civil Service or not.

SECTION IV.—THIRD CONDITION.

Sources of Remuneration.—385. Service which satisfies the conditions prescribed in Sections II and III qualifies, or does not qualify, according to the source from which it is paid; with reference to this Article, service is classified as follows:—

- (a) Paid from the General Revenues.
- (b) Paid from Local Funds.
- (c) Paid from Funds in respect to which the Government holds the position of Trustee.
- (d) Paid by Fees levied by law, or under the authority of the Government, or by Commission.
- (e) Paid by the Grant, in accordance with law or custom, of a tenure in land, or of any source of income, or right to collect money.

General Revenues.—386. Service paid from the General Revenues qualifies. The fact that arrangements are made for the recovery, on the part of the Government, of the whole, or part, of the cost of an establishment or officer, does not affect the operation of this principle, provided that the establishment or officer is appointed, controlled, and paid by the Government.

Local Funds and Trust Funds.—390. Service paid from a Local Fund qualifies, or does not qualify, according to the rules laid down in Chapter XLII. [of the *Civil Service Regulations*].

391. Service paid from Funds which Government holds only as a Trustee, such as under a Court of Wards or in an Attached Estate, does not qualify.

Fees and Commission.—392. (a) Service in an office paid only by fees, whether levied by law or under the authority of Government, or by a commission, does not qualify.

(b) Service in an office paid by fees or by commission, in addition to pay from the General Revenues, qualifies.

Tenures in Land, etc.—393. Service paid by the grant, in accordance with law or custom, of a tenure in land, or of any other source of income, or right to collect money, does not qualify.

SECTION V.—DISTINCTION BETWEEN SUPERIOR AND INFERIOR SERVICE.

395. Qualifying service is divided into SUPERIOR and INFERIOR.

[The amount of pay as stated throughout these rules is the *monthly* pay.]

Inferior Service.—396. Service on pay not exceeding Rs. 10, and service in the following capacities, or in any office which has been graded as Inferior by the rule or practice of the Local Government, is Inferior service:—

Artificers, other than those specified in Article 397, Handicraftsmen, and Labourers.

Bázars: Cháudharies of —.

Daftaries and Muchies.

Distributors in Printing and Lithographic establishments.

Dockyard and Military Artificers not specially provided for in Article 484.
Forest Guards.

Maistries in the Public Works Department on pay less than Rs. 25.

Menial and Inferior servants of all sorts.

Messengers, Orderlies, and Peons, and their petty officers.

Priests and other officers employed to administer oaths.

Rollermen or Inkmen, Fly-boys or Takers-off, in Printing establishments.

Royal Indian Marine: Bhundaries, Cooks' Mates, Lascars, Stokers and Topasses in Sub-marine Mining Vessels of the —.

Sarkárs, except Counting Sarkárs in the Stamp Office, and Godown Sarkárs in the Stationery Office, Calcutta.

Seamen and Boatmen.

Shroffs whose pay does not exceed Rs. 25.

Turnkeys.

Superior Service.—397. All other service is Superior service. The service of the following officers is Superior if their pay exceeds Rs. 10:—

Army Remount Department: Darogahs and native stable overseers in the —.

Bailiffs; Bázárs: Kotwáls of —.

Book-binders whose professional occupation is book-binding and who are not mere Daftaries.

Commissariat Inspectors.

Compounders; Drivers.

Duffadars in the Thagi and Dakaiti Department drawing Rs. 15 and Rs. 20 a month from the date of the new organisation, viz., the 5th September 1887.

Goungs: Bázárs and Cattle-Market Goungs in Burma.

Hospital Purveyors.

Indo-European Telegraph Department; the Serang of lascars and two tindals drawing Rs. 35, Rs. 30, and Rs. 25 a month, respectively, in the Cable Branch of the Subordinate Establishment of the —.

Jail Department: Head Warders whose pay exceeds Rs. 10.

Light-houses; Signalmen in —. Light-keepers (native) in Burma.

Maistries and artificers in the permanent pensionable establishment of the Public Works Department whose pay is not less than Rs. 25.

Medical Department: Cutlers in the —.

Meteorological Department: Whole-time Meteorological Observers in the — drawing Rs. 10 a month.

Potdars, Assistant Potdars and Shroffs in the Post Office whose designation was in December 1899 changed to "treasurer's assistant."

Shroffs on Rs. 25 and upwards in the Treasuries of Burma and in the Rangoon Currency Office.

Printing Establishments: Workmen employed in — except those whose work is purely mechanical, such as Distributors, Rollermen or Inkmen, Fly-boys or Takers-off.

Royal Indian Marine: Engine-drivers, Serangs of Lascars, Serangs of Stokers, Tindals of Lascars, and Tindals of Stokers in Sub-marine Mining Vessels of the —.

Salutries in the — (1) Army Remount Department. (2) Civil Veterinary Department. (3) Mounted Infantry in Burma. (4) Transport Department, in receipt of pay at the rate of Rs. 30 a month.

Shroffs whose pay exceeds Rs. 25.

Telegraph Department: Artificers, Assistant Artificers, Mounted Artificers and Linemen in the —. The service of a Lineman is Superior even if his pay does not exceed Rs. 10.

Tomandárs and Náib Tomandars of the Thagi and Dakaiti Department. Vaccinators.

Victualling Gomastahs.

Service partly Inferior and partly Superior.—398. An officer whose service has been for some time Inferior and for some time Superior may either count—

- (a) the whole as Inferior towards pension or gratuity on the Inferior scale, or
- (b) the Superior portion towards pension or gratuity on the Superior scale, and the Inferior portion towards gratuity on the Inferior scale.

Under (a) the pension or gratuity is calculated on the pay (whether in Superior or Inferior service) which the officer drew immediately before his retirement.

Under (b) the pension or gratuity on the Superior scale is calculated upon the average emolument or emoluments respectively which the officer drew when last in Superior service, and the gratuity on the Inferior scale upon the pay which he drew when last in Inferior service; provided that the total gratuity or gratuity *plus* pension granted under this clause shall not exceed what would have been admissible, if the whole service had been Superior.

If an officer has been reduced from the Superior to the Inferior class for misconduct, he cannot have the benefit of this Article without the special permission of the Local Government.

399. The claims of an officer, promoted from an Inferior to a Superior grade as a reward for meritorious service, will be specially considered by the Government of India. This rule is to be strictly interpreted, and a claim under it can be founded only on exceptional promotion made out of the ordinary course.

Exceptional Cases.—400. If an officer holds two or more offices, each of which is Inferior by reason of its pay not exceeding Rs. 10, he cannot count service as Superior, on the ground that his aggregate pay exceeds Rs. 10, unless the offices were arranged and their pay determined with the intention that they should be held by one individual.

401. The service of a postman or village postman, whatever his pay, is Superior service, provided he has served as postman or village postman for five years with approval.

402. (a) When the regular duties of an officer whose pay exceeds Rs. 10,

but who bears an Inferior designation, are really such as are ordinarily performed by a Superior servant, his claim to pension should be specially referred to the Government of India.

(b) On the other hand, an officer whose real duties are those of an Inferior servant, even though his pay exceeds Rs. 10, is not entitled to pension on the Superior scale merely because he draws pay under a Superior designation.

CHAPTER XVII.—RULES FOR RECKONING SERVICE.

SECTION I.—SPECIAL ADDITIONS.

Special Appointments.—403. Subject to the restriction specified against the first three offices, an incumbent of one of the offices enumerated below, appointed on account of professional or other special qualifications, whose whole pensionable service has been passed in one or other of such offices, shall, if appointed at an age exceeding 25, be entitled to reckon as service qualifying for superannuation pension (but not for any other class of pension) the number of completed years by which his age may at the time of appointment have exceeded 25 years, subject to the proviso that five years shall be the maximum period which can be so added.

1. Deputy Legal Remembrancer, Bengal.
2. Presidency Magistrates.
3. Judges of the Small Cause Court at a
Presidency Town (other than the
Chief Judges) and at Rangoon. } When Barristers, Advocates,
Solicitors, or Vakils.
4. The Astronomer, Madras.
5. The Director of the Colaba Observatory.
6. Members of the Indian Educational Service who entered that Service after 23rd July 1896.

404. In the case of officers who were in the Education Department on 23rd July 1896, the following rule applies.

For the purpose of calculating the amount of pension ordinarily admissible to an officer, not being a Native of Asia, whose qualifying service began after 25 years of age, and whose service for which pension is claimed amounts to not less than ten years, and has been passed wholly in one or other of the following offices, three years shall be added to the qualifying service:—

1. Directors of Public Instruction.
2. Inspectors of Schools.
3. Principals and Professors of Colleges.
4. Head Masters of Colleges and High Schools.

SECTION II.—PERIODS OF LEAVE.

Superior Service.—407. Except as provided in Article 408 time passed on leave other than Privilege leave or Subsidiary leave does not count as Superior service. Time passed on leave subsidiary to Leave on Medical Cer-

tificate by an officer subject to the Indian Service Leave Rules, who has twice before had Leave on Medical Certificate out of India, does not count.

408. Time passed on leave with allowances counts as service as follows:—

<i>If the total service of the Officer is not less than—</i>	<i>He counts as service a period of leave out of India not exceeding—</i>	<i>He counts as service a period of leave in India not exceeding—</i>
15 years	1 year	1 year.
20 “	2 years	“
25 “	3 “	“
30 “	4 “	2 years.
35 “	5 “	“

NOTE 1.—[The periods in columns 2 and 3 are not cumulative, that is, an officer may not count two years' leave in 15 years' service or more than four years' leave in 30 years' service. The maximum amount of leave both in and out of India which may be counted is that shown in column 2.]

NOTE 2.—[Total service in this Article means total service reckoning from the date of commencement of service qualifying for pension and includes periods of leave.]

NOTE 3.—[For the purposes of this Article, Ceylon is not held to be “out of India.”]

409. Time passed on leave by the following officers during Recess on half pay, or in the case of the Survey of India, on less than half pay or without pay, provided the officers return to duty when required by their superior officers, counts:—

Subordinates of the Survey of India whose service is Superior, Lower Subordinates of the Forest Survey.

410. Time passed on leave obtained to be present at an examination which must be passed before an officer is eligible for higher subordinate appointments, such as Deputy Magistracies, counts.

Deputation out of India.—412. When an officer is deputed out of India on duty, the whole period of his absence from India counts. When an officer on leave out of India is employed, or is detained after the termination of his leave, on duty, the period of such employment or detention counts.

Recall to Duty.—413. Time spent on the voyage to India by an officer who is recalled to duty before the expiry of any recognised leave, and (if, within a year from the date on which he can be spared, the officer takes the unexpired portion of the leave from which he was recalled), the time spent on the return voyage to Europe counts.

Inferior Service.—414. An Inferior servant counts periods of authorised leave, that is, leave granted by competent authority and not exceeding in amount that admissible under the Leave Rules.

415. Leave without allowances may count if the whole amount of leave taken, with or without allowances, does not exceed what might be given with allowances under the Leave Rules.

SECTION III.—SUSPENSIONS, RESIGNATIONS, BREAKS, AND DEFICIENCIES IN SERVICE.

Periods of Suspension.—416. Time passed under suspension pending inquiry into conduct counts, if the suspension is immediately followed by

reinstatement, but time passed under suspension adjudged as a specific penalty does not count.

417. If an officer, who has been suspended, pending inquiry into his conduct, is reinstated, but with forfeiture of any part of his allowances for the period of suspension, this period does not count, unless the authority who reinstates the officer expressly declares at the time that the period shall count.

Resignations and Dismissals.—418. (a) Resignation of the public service, or removal from it for misconduct, insolvency, inefficiency not due to age, or failure to pass a prescribed examination, entails forfeiture of past service.

(b) Resignation of an appointment to take up another appointment, service in which counts, is not a resignation of the public service.

419. Any authority who, on revision or appeal, reverses an order dismissing an officer, may declare that the officer's past service counts.

Interruptions.—420. An interruption in the service of an officer entails forfeiture of his past service, except in the following cases:—

(a) Authorised leave of absence.

(b) Unauthorised absence in continuation of authorised leave of absence, so long as the office of the absentee is not substantively filled; if his office is substantively filled, the past service of the absentee is forfeited: Provided that, if the absentee is subsequently reinstated, the authority whose duty it is to make the appointment, within three months, or the Local Government within one year, from the end of the authorised leave of absence, may declare, in an order to be communicated to the Audit Officer, that his previous service, or any part of it, shall not be forfeited.

(c) Suspension immediately followed by reinstatement, which need not be to the same office.

(d) Abolition of office or loss of appointment owing to reduction of establishment.

(e) Transfer to non-qualifying service in an establishment under Government control. The transfer must be made by competent authority; an officer who voluntarily resigns qualifying service cannot claim the benefit of this exception. Transfer to a grant-in-aid school entails forfeiture.

(f) Transfer to service on the household establishment of the Viceroy.

(g) Time occupied in transit from one appointment to another, provided that the officer is transferred under the orders of competent authority, or, if he is a non-gazetted officer, with the consent of the head of his old office.

421. The Local Government may commute retrospectively periods of absence without leave, into leave without allowances.

Condonation of Interruptions and Deficiencies.—422. Upon such conditions as it may think fit, in each case, to impose—

(i) The Government of India may condone all interruptions in service not exceeding twelve months in all; and the Local Government may condone all interruptions not exceeding three months in all.

- (ii) If the proposed pension does not exceed fifty rupees a month, the Government of India may condone interruptions in service, whatever their duration: and the Local Government may exercise the same power if the pension is a Provincial charge; otherwise it may condone interruptions not exceeding twelve months in all.

423. (1) Upon any conditions which it may think fit to impose, the Government of India, or, if the pension be a Provincial charge, the Local Government, may, in all cases, condone a deficiency of three months, in qualifying service. If the pension is an Imperial charge, the Local Government may not condone a deficiency of more than one month.

(2) (a) If, besides his qualifying service, an officer has rendered service (actual) paid from the General Revenues, but not counting for pension, or if an officer claiming a pension for Superior service has also rendered Inferior service, the Government of India, or, if the pension be a Provincial charge, the Local Government, may condone a deficiency in the officer's qualifying service not exceeding half his non-qualifying, or, as the case may be, Inferior service, and, also, not exceeding twelve months in all.

(b) If the pension is an Imperial charge, the Local Government may, in these cases, condone a deficiency not exceeding one-fourth the officer's non-qualifying, or, as the case may be, Inferior service, and, also, not exceeding three months.

NOTE.—The two clauses of this Section are alternative and not cumulative.

CHAPTER XVIII.—CONDITIONS OF GRANT OF PENSION.

SECTION I.—CLASSIFICATION OF PENSIONS.

424. Pensions for "Superior service" are divided into four classes, the rules for which are prescribed in the following Sections of this Chapter—

- (a) Compensation pensions (see Section II).
- (b) Invalid pensions (see Section III).
- (c) Superannuation pension (see Section IV).
- (d) Retiring pensions (see Section V).

425. Pensions for "Inferior service" are regulated by Articles 481 to 485.

SECTION II.—COMPENSATION PENSION.

426. A Compensation pension is awarded to an officer discharged from the public service because, on a reduction of establishment, his appointment is abolished and other suitable employment cannot be found for him. An appointment, the pay of which is reduced as part of a general scheme of revision, is abolished within the meaning of this Article. But in such case it may sometimes be cheaper to grant a personal allowance than a pension.

427. To pension an officer still capable of useful service is a waste of public money; before a pension is granted to such an officer discharged on abolition of appointment, it must be carefully considered whether he cannot be otherwise provided for. The head of a department, in forwarding an application

for Compensation pension, should invariably state for what reasons it has been found impossible to provide suitable employment for the applicant.

Selection for Discharge.—428. The selection of the officers to be discharged upon the reduction of an establishment should *prima facie* be so made that the least charge for Compensation pension will be incurred.

429. The discharge of one officer to make room for another better qualified is not the abolition of an appointment within the meaning of Article 426; the abolition must produce a real saving to Government. Particulars of the saving effected should be fully set forth in every application for Compensation pension. The saving should always exceed the cost of the pension; otherwise it may perhaps be better to postpone the reduction of establishment or abolition of appointment.

Restrictions.—430. A Deputy Collector, Munsiff, or similar officer who belongs to the public service, apart from his particular local appointment, cannot obtain a Compensation pension on the abolition of a particular appointment.

431. No pension is admissible to an officer for the loss of an appointment on discharge after the completion of a specified term of service.

432. No pension may be awarded for the loss of a Local Allowance.

433. Schoolmasters or other officers who, in addition to their other duties, are employed in any capacity in the Postal Department, are not entitled to Compensation pension on being relieved of such duties.

Special Cases.—434. If it is necessary to discharge an officer in consequence of a change in the nature of the duties of his office, the case should be referred to the Government of India.

435. If of two appointments held by one officer, one is abolished and the other retained, the case should be specially submitted to the Government of India.

Notice of Discharge.—436. Reasonable notice should be given to an officer in permanent employ before his services are dispensed with on the abolition of his office. If, in any case, notice of at least three months is not given, and the officer has not been provided with other employment on the date on which his services are dispensed with, then, with the sanction of the Local Government, a gratuity not exceeding his emoluments for the period by which the notice actually given to him falls short of three months, may be paid to him, in addition to the pension to which he may be entitled under Articles 474 to 481; but the pension shall not be payable for the period in respect of which he receives a gratuity in lieu of notice. The responsible officer will, however, be required to explain any neglect on his part which may give rise to expenditure for such a gratuity.

1. The gratuity prescribed in this Article is not granted as compensation for loss of employment, but only in lieu of notice of discharge, with a view to mitigate the hardship caused to an officer by the sudden loss of employment. When, therefore, an officer discharged without notice is provided with some other employment on the date on which his services are dispensed with, whether that employment be in qualifying or non-qualifying service, he is not entitled to any gratuity.

2. Unless it contains an express statement to the contrary, an order for the

abolition of an office or appointment shall not be brought into operation, till the expiry of three months after notice has been given to the officers whose services are to be dispensed with on such abolition. The immediate head of the office or the department will be held responsible that there is no unnecessary delay in giving such notice. In the case of an officer on leave, the order shall not be brought into operation until the leave expires.

NOTE.—“Emoluments” in this rule means the emoluments or leave allowances (or partly the one, partly the other) which the officer would be receiving during the period in question, had the notice not been given him.

Offer of Re-employment.—437. An officer discharged with a Compensation pension may not, without surrendering his pension, refuse to accept any appointment which the Local Government thinks fit, within six months from the date of his discharge, to offer to him. The salary of such new appointment must not, however, be less than enough to raise his total receipts, under the operation of Article 514, to the amount which he received as salary immediately before his discharge, nor should the new appointment be such as the officer cannot reasonably and equitably be expected to accept.

438. The rule in Articles 511 to 513, requiring the refund of a Compensation gratuity on re-employment, applies to a gratuity awarded under Article 436, if the officer is permanently re-employed within three months from the date of notice. But the officer need not refund that proportion of his gratuity under this rule which the interval of his non-employment bears to the whole period for which the gratuity is given. If the officer is re-employed only temporarily, he need refund no part of his gratuity; but if such temporary employment is foreseen, the gratuity should be proportionately reduced.

439. Article 437 applies also to the case of an officer entitled to Compensation pension who, upon the abolition of his own appointment, is transferred by competent authority to another appointment. To such an officer a Compensation pension may be simultaneously awarded, subject always to the limitation prescribed by Article 514.

Acceptance of New Appointment.—440. If an officer who is entitled to Compensation pension accepts instead another appointment in the public service, and subsequently becomes again entitled to receive a pension of any class, the amount of such pension shall not be less than he could have claimed if he had not accepted the appointment.

SECTION III.—INVALID PENSION.

441. An Invalid pension is awarded, on his retirement from the public service, to an officer who by bodily or mental infirmity is permanently incapacitated for the public service, or for the particular branch of it to which he belongs.

Rules regarding Medical Certificates.—442. If an officer applying for an Invalid pension is sixty years old or upwards, no certificate by a Medical Officer is necessary; it suffices for the head of the office to certify to the in-

capacity of the applicant. Otherwise, incapacity for service must be established by a medical certificate attested as follows:—

(a) If the officer submitting it is on leave in England—by the Medical Board at the India Office.

(b) If he is serving at or near the capital town of a Province—by the Administrative Medical Officer of the Province, or by a Medical Committee over which the Administrative Medical Officer should, when practicable, preside.

(c) If he is an officer in Superior service, and is serving in the interior of the country under such circumstances that, in the opinion of the Local Government, he can be conveniently required to appear before a Medical Invaliding Committee—by such Committee.

(d) In other cases, the Local Government may either accept a certificate given by a single Commissioned Medical Officer or Medical Officer in charge of a civil station, or assemble a special Invaliding Committee at a convenient civil station.

(e) If the pension applied for exceeds Rs. 100 a month, a certificate by a single Medical Officer should not be accepted as sufficient, if it is possible, without undue inconvenience, to assemble an Invaliding Committee or to cause the applicant to appear before the Director-General, Indian Medical Department, or the Standing Medical Committee at the Presidency.

(f) Except in the case of an officer on leave in England, no medical certificate of incapacity for service may be granted unless the applicant produces a letter to show that the head of his office or department is aware of his intention to appear before the Medical Officer. The Medical Officer shall also be supplied by the head of the office or department in which the applicant is employed, with a statement of what appears from official records to be the applicant's age. Where the applicant has a service book, the age there recorded should be reported.

443. (a) A succinct statement of the medical case, and of the treatment adopted, should, if possible, be appended.

(b) If the Examining Medical Officer, although unable to discover any specific disease in the officer, considers him incapacitated for further service by general debility while still under the age of fifty-five years, he should give detailed reasons for his opinion, and, if possible, a second medical opinion should always in such a case be obtained.

(c) In a case of this kind, special explanation will be expected from the head of the office or department of the grounds on which it is proposed to invalid the officer.

444. A simple certificate that inefficiency is due to old age or natural decay from advancing years, is not sufficient in the case of an officer whose recorded age is less than fifty-five years, but a Medical Officer is at liberty, when certifying that the officer is incapacitated for further service by general debility, to state his reasons for believing the age to be understated. An officer's pension should not be reduced under Article 478 (a) on the ground of such a belief having been expressed, unless it is clearly shown by the medical and other evidence that the age has been intentionally understated.

Form of Medical Certificate in England.—445. The form of the medi-

cal certificate given by the Medical Board attached to the India Office, respecting an officer applying for pension in England, is as follows:—

Certified that we have carefully examined *A B*, of the Indian ———— His age is, by his own statement, ——— years, and by appearance about ——— years. Looking at all the facts of his case and his present condition, we consider that he is so far incapacitated for further service in India that we recommend that he be permitted to retire from the service of Government on the pension or gratuity for which he may be eligible. So far as we are in a position to judge, *his incapacity has not been occasioned by irregular or intemperate habits.*

NOTE.—If the incapacity is obviously the result of intemperance, substitute for the words in italics: “In our opinion, his incapacity is the result of irregular or intemperate habits.”

446. If any doubt arises regarding the validity of a certificate by the Medical Board attached to the India Office, the Audit Officer must not of his own motion reject the certificate as invalid, but must submit the matter for the decision of the Local Government.

Form of Medical Certificate in India.—447. (a) The form of the certificate to be given respecting an officer applying for pension in India is as follows:—

Certified that I (we) have carefully examined *A B*, son of *C D*, a ———— in the ———— His age is by his own statement ——— years, and by appearance about ——— years. I (we) consider *A B* to be completely and permanently incapacitated for further service of any kind [or in the Department to which he belongs] in consequence of (*here state disease or cause*). His incapacity does not appear to me (us) to have been caused by irregular or intemperate habits.

(*If the incapacity does not appear to be complete and permanent, the certificate should be modified accordingly and the following addition should be made:*) I am (we are) of opinion that *A B* is fit for further service of a less laborious character than that which he has been doing [or may, after resting for—— months, be fit for further service of a less laborious character than that which he has been doing].

NOTE.—See note under Article 445, which applies here also.

(b) The object of the alternative certificate (of partial incapacity) is that an officer should, if possible, be employed even on lower pay, so that the expense of pensioning him may be avoided. If there be no means of employing him even on lower pay, then he may be admitted to pension; but it should be considered whether, in view of his capacity for partially earning a living, it is necessary to grant to him the full pension admissible under rule. The principle of Article 427 must always be carefully borne in mind.

Restrictions.—452. An officer discharged on other grounds has no claim under Article 441, even although he can produce medical evidence of incapacity for service.

453. Article 427 applies, *mutatis mutandis*, in the case of an officer invalided under Article 441 as unfit for employment only in some particular branch of

the public service. Every effort should be made to find for such an officer other employment suited to his particular capacity.

454. If the incapacity is the result of irregular or intemperate habits, no pension can be granted. Otherwise, it is for the Local Government to decide whether the officer's incapacity is such as to render it necessary to admit him to invalid pension.

SECTION IV.—SUPERANNUATION PENSION.

458. A Superannuation pension is granted to an officer entitled or compelled, by rule, to retire at a particular age.

459. (a) An officer in Superior service, who has attained the age of 55 years, may be required to retire, unless the Local Government considers him efficient, and permits him to remain in the Service. But, as the premature retirement of an efficient officer imposes a needless charge on the State, this rule should be worked with discretion. And in cases in which the rule is enforced, the reasons for enforcing it shall be placed on record by the Local Government, or other competent authority.

NOTE 1.—Local Governments should always extend to this rule a very liberal interpretation, so that the State may not, in any case, be deprived of the valuable experience of really efficient officers by the untimely exercise of the powers of compulsory retirement on pension.

(b) The following rulings should be kept carefully in view in applying the rules regarding compulsory retirement:—

“(1) A Covenanted Civilian, or an officer of the Army in civil employ, is obliged to retire after a certain period of service, unless it is injurious to the public interest that he should do so; but an Uncovenanted officer in a superior grade, who has attained the age of fifty-five years, may be required to retire, unless the Local Government considers him efficient, and permits him to remain in the service. There is thus a clear distinction between the two classes of officers; for the former class is required, as a rule, to retire; while the latter is required, as a rule, to be retained, the result, in both cases alike, being decided by what is most expedient in the public interests.

The Government of India think it unnecessary to add to these rules; but in the case of officers holding appointments open to the Covenanted Service, the standard of efficiency by which the retention of such officers is to be decided may reasonably be raised above the standard required in lower appointments.”

“(2) As some misapprehension appears to exist on the subject of the rule regarding the compulsory retirement of Uncovenanted officers after the age of fifty-five years, His Honour the President in Council thinks it desirable to state that not only do *Articles 459 and 912 of these Regulations read together*, not require the compulsory retirement of any efficient officer of whatever age, but that, though the *Articles* authorise the local authorities, at their discretion, to presume that an officer is inefficient at fifty-five years of age conditionally, and at sixty years of age absolutely, yet the whole tenor of the rules is that such presumption shall be exercised with careful consideration,

both for the individual who would suffer by being deprived of his appointment while capable of discharging its duties, and for the finances of the country, which would suffer were officers, still efficient, prematurely thrown upon the pension list."

460. An officer, who is compelled to retire under the preceding Article or who retires voluntarily under Article 464, and part of whose service has been Inferior, is entitled to pension on the same conditions as if he had been invalided under Article 481 and to the option allowed by Article 398.

Optional Retirement at Fifty-five.—464. An officer in Superior service who has attained the age of 55 years may, at his option, retire on a Superannuation pension; but no officer is permitted to retire on attaining the age of 55 without the sanction of the Financial Commissioner.

SECTION V.—RETIRING PENSION.

465. A Retiring pension is granted to an officer who voluntarily retires after completing qualifying Superior service for thirty years or such less time as may for any special class of officers be prescribed.

Retirement with View to Re-employment.—466. No officer, Civil or Military, may retire with the view of being re-employed, whether in the general service or in service paid from an Incorporated Local Fund, and drawing pension in addition to pay.

Combined Appointments.—467. An officer holding two or more separate appointments may not, save with the express sanction of the Government of India in the Finance Department or, if pensions are a Provincial charge, of the Local Government, resign one or more of such appointments on a pension, without retiring from the public service altogether. There is no objection to his being relieved from one or more of such appointments at any time, without being compelled to leave the service altogether; but in such case any pension admissible to him for service in the office or offices from which he is relieved will be deferred until he finally retires.

CHAPTER XIX.—AMOUNT OF PENSIONS.

SECTION I.—GENERAL RULES.

468. The amount of pension that may be granted is determined by length of service as set forth in Articles 474 to 485. Fractions of a year are not taken into account in the calculation of any pension admissible to an officer under this part of these Regulations.

Currency.—469. A pension is fixed in rupees, and not in sterling money, even though it is to be paid in England.

Award of Full Pension.—470. (a) The full pension admissible under the rules is not to be given as a matter of course, or unless the service rendered has been really approved.

(b) If the service has not been thoroughly satisfactory, the authority sanctioning the pension should make such reduction in the amount as it thinks proper.

Limitations.—471. An officer entitled to pension may not take a gratuity instead of pension.

472. In the case of an officer who has any service under the Imperial (British) Government, pension from Indian Revenues should not be fixed until it has been ascertained whether any pension is payable from Imperial funds in respect of the service under the British Government.

473. An officer, not being a Military officer or a member of the Indian Civil Service, transferred to service under a Colonial Government, on final retirement from the Colonial service on pension or compensation allowance, receives, from Indian Revenues, for each completed year of qualifying and uninterrupted service in India, a pension of one-sixtieth of his average emoluments at the time of his transfer, such average emoluments to be calculated for the last three years, or, if the whole service in India is less than three years, for the whole period of service. The pension is subject to a maximum limit of Rs. 2,000 a year for an Indian service not exceeding ten years and Rs. 4,000 a year in any other case.

NOTE.—The sanction of the Government of India is required to the transfer of an officer to any service of the description mentioned in this Article.

SECTION II.—AMOUNT OF SUPERIOR PENSION.

474. The amount of a pension is regulated as follows:—

(a) After a service of less than ten years, a gratuity not exceeding (except in special cases, and under the orders of the Government of India) one month's emoluments for each completed year of service. If the emoluments of the officer have been reduced during the last three years of his service, otherwise than as a penalty, average emoluments may, at the discretion of the Local Government, be substituted for emoluments.

(b) After a service of not less than ten years, a pension not exceeding the following amounts:—

<i>Years of completed service.</i>	<i>Scale of pension.</i>	<i>Maximum limit of pension.</i>	
		<i>Rs.</i>	<i>Rs.</i>
10	10 sixtieths of average emoluments	2,000 a year, or	166 $\frac{2}{3}$ a month.
11	11 " " "	2,200 "	183 $\frac{1}{3}$ "
12	12 " " "	2,400 "	200 "
13	13 " " "	2,600 "	216 $\frac{2}{3}$ "
14	14 " " "	2,800 "	233 $\frac{1}{3}$ "
15	15 " " "	3,000 "	250 "
16	16 " " "	3,200 "	266 $\frac{2}{3}$ "
17	17 " " "	3,400 "	283 $\frac{1}{3}$ "
18	18 " " "	3,600 "	300 "
19	19 " " "	3,800 "	316 $\frac{2}{3}$ "
20	20 " " "	4,000 "	333 $\frac{1}{3}$ "
21	21 " " "	4,200 "	350 "
22	22 " " "	4,400 "	366 $\frac{2}{3}$ "
23	23 " " "	4,600 "	383 $\frac{1}{3}$ "
24	24 " " "	4,800 "	400 "
25 and above	30 " " "	5,000 "	416 $\frac{2}{3}$ "

NOTE.—For the precise meaning of average emoluments see Articles 486 and 487.

475. [Provides for an additional pension of Rs. 1,000 a year for certain high officials provided they have shown such special energy and efficiency as may be considered deserving of the concession.]

476. The following special scale of pension is admissible to officers appointed in England to the Forest and Geological Survey Departments:—

(a) After a service of less than ten years, an invalid gratuity on the scale laid down in Article 474 (a).

(b) After a service of not less than ten years, an invalid pension not exceeding the following amounts:—

Years of completed service.	Scale of pension.			Maximum limit of pension.	
				Rs.	Rs.
10	20	sixtieths of average emoluments		1,000 a year, or	83½ a month.
11	21	" " "		1,400 "	116⅔ "
12	22	" " "		1,800 "	150 "
13	23	" " "		2,200 "	183½ "
14	24	" " "		2,600 "	216⅔ "
15	25	" " "	}	3,000 "	250 "
16	26	" " "			
17	27	" " "			
18	28	" " "			
19	29	" " "			

(c) After a service of not less than twenty years, a retiring pension not exceeding the following amounts:—

20 to 24	{ 30 sixtieths of average	{ 4,000 a year, or 333½ a month.
25 & above		
	emoluments.	{ 5,000 " 416⅔ "

SECTION III.—AMOUNT OF INFERIOR PENSION.

481. For Inferior qualifying service, pension may, subject to the conditions laid down in Articles 426 to 457, be granted as follows:—

(a) Compensation and Invalid gratuity:

(i) after a service of less than five years—*Nil*;

" "	not less than 5 years, but less than 10 years,				3 months' pay.
" "	" "	10	" "	15	" 4 "
" "	" "	15	" "	20	" 5 "
" "	" "	20	" "	30	" 6 "

(b) Compensation and Invalid pension: After a service of not less than 30 years—half-pay not exceeding four rupees a month.

There is no Superannuation or Retiring pension for Inferior service.

482. If the pay of an officer has been reduced during the last three years of his service otherwise than as a penalty, his gratuity or pension under this Section may, at the discretion of the Local Government, be calculated upon the average of his pay during the last three years of his service.

SECTION IV.—ALLOWANCES RECKONED FOR PENSION.

Emoluments and Average Emoluments.—486. The term "Emoluments," when used in this Part of the Regulations, means the emoluments

which the officer was receiving immediately before his retirement, and includes—

- (a) Pay;
- (b) Personal allowance; continues to reckon as part of “Emoluments” even when it is wholly or partly absorbed in acting allowance, not so reckoning.
- (c) Fees or commission, if they are the authorised emoluments of an appointment, and are *in addition* to pay. In this case “Emoluments” means the average earnings for the last six months of service;
- (d) Charge allowance to Signallers in the Indian and Indo-European Telegraph Departments;
- (e) Commission in the case of a *Thugyi* in Lower Burma, “Emoluments” in this case being held to mean the average of his monthly receipts in commission during the three years’ actual service previous to retirement;
- (f) Bullock Train allowance in the Post Office Department;
- (g) Allowances attached to a Minor Professorship in a Medical College under the Medical Warrant of 1867;
- (h) Allowance attached to a Professorship or Lectureship in a Government Institution;
- (i) Acting allowances of an officer without a substantive appointment if the acting service counts under Article 371, and allowances drawn by an officer appointed provisionally or substantively *pro tempore* to an office which is substantively vacant, and on which no officer has a lien, or to an office temporarily vacant in consequence of the absence of the permanent incumbent on leave without allowances, or on transfer to Foreign service.

487. The term “Average Emoluments” means the average calculated upon the last three years of service.

1. If, during the last three years of his service, an officer has been absent from duty on leave with allowances, or, having been suspended, has been reinstated without forfeiture of service, his Emoluments, for the purpose of ascertaining the average, should be taken at what they would have been, had he not been absent from duty or suspended: Provided always that his pension must not be increased on account of increase in pay not actually drawn. But, if his absence during Recess is reckoned as service under Article 409, only the allowances, if any, actually received during the Recess should be taken into account.

2. If, during the last three years of his service, an officer has been absent from duty on leave without allowances (not counting for pension), or in inferior service, or suspended under such circumstances that the period of suspension does not count as service, the periods so passed should be disregarded in the calculation of the average, an equal period before the three years being included.

3. Excepting as provided in rules 1 and 2, only emoluments actually received can be included in the calculation. For example, when an officer is allowed to count time retrospectively towards increase of pay, but does not receive retrospectively the intermediate periodical increments, these intermediate increments are not reckoned in the calculations.

Allowances which do not count.—488. An officer cannot count the following allowances:—

- (1) Local allowances, including allowances given for duties performed in addition to the work of a regular appointment;
- (2) Messing allowances, Working allowances, and Provision allowances to officers in the Marine Department;
- (3) House-rent allowance, or estimated value of free quarters;
- (4) Tour and other allowances (to officers who accompany the Viceroy or any Government);
- (5) Compensation for dearness of provisions.

Net Emoluments taken.—489. Any part of an officer's pay or emoluments, which is specially intended to provide for expenses incidental to his duty, must be excluded.

Combination of Appointments.—492. If an officer has held more than one appointment, in respect of each of which, if he had held it separately and alone, pension would have been admissible to him, the pension admissible to him is the sum of the several pensions which would have been admissible to him if he had held each office separately and alone. The consolidated pension thus admissible is subject to the limitations prescribed in Articles 474 to 480.

493. An officer is not entitled for service in an office conjointly with another office, to any pension which would not have been admissible to him if he had held the office separately and alone.

CHAPTER XX.—SPECIAL RULES FOR THE POLICE.

SECTION I.—EXTENT OF APPLICATION.

494. [States the Police Forces to which the rules in the chapter apply. The rules apply to the Government *Civil* Police of Burma. The special rules applying to the Burma *Military* Police are given on pp. 223–226 of this volume.]

Municipal Police.—495. (a) If the Police of a town are wholly supported by, and under the control of, a Municipality, the Government has no concern with their pensions.

(b) But if the Government, being interested in the efficiency of a Police Force, paid, wholly or partly, by a Municipality, or from Cantonment Funds, or from the General Revenues subsidised by a contribution from a Municipality, or from Cantonment Funds, undertakes the organisation and control of the Force, as connected with and auxiliary to the Civil Constabulary, service in such a Force qualifies.

Railway Police.—498. The service of members of the Railway Police, appointed and controlled by Government, qualifies, though they may be either wholly or partly paid by the Railway Companies.

SECTION II.—QUALIFYING SERVICE.

Service before Enlistment.—501. In the following cases service rendered before enlistment in the present Police Constabulary qualifies:—

(a) Soldiers transferred to the Police on reduction of the Native Army count their Army service.

(b) Service in Superior grades in any other department qualifies.

(d) Native Commissioned officers and men of the Army who volunteer for transfer to the levies and Military Police raised in Burma, in consequence of the annexation of Upper Burma, are allowed to count their Army service for pension under the rules applicable to the Police in that Province.

Breaks in Service.—502. Subject to the provisions of Chapter XXI, a policeman on pay not exceeding twenty rupees, who re-enlists within one year after discharge or resignation, may, with the sanction of the Inspector-General, count his service before such discharge or resignation.

SECTION III.—AMOUNT OF PENSION.

Officers on Pay not exceeding Rs. 20.—503. The pension admissible to an officer whose pay at date of discharge or resignation does not exceed twenty rupees, will be determined according to the rules prescribed in Chapters XVII to XIX for the calculation of pensions for Superior service; except that—

(i) all service in the Police after the age of eighteen years qualifies;

(ii) in addition to the Privilege leave which, under Article 407, is reckoned as service, one year's leave in fifteen years' service, and two in thirty years' service, is so reckoned.

Officers on Pay exceeding Rs. 20.—506. The pension admissible to an officer whose pay at date of discharge or resignation exceeds twenty rupees, is determined by the rules which apply to ordinary service, except that service rendered after the completion of twenty years of age, and declared by this Chapter to be qualifying, is treated as Superior service, and that the benefit of Article 502 is not withdrawn from a Police officer by reason of his being promoted to pay exceeding twenty rupees a month.

Previous Inferior Service.—507. If part of an officer's continuous service qualifies for pension under the general rules, but does not qualify under the rules in this Chapter, he may elect to receive, in lieu of the pension admissible under this Chapter, such pension as is admissible to him under Articles 398 and 481 to 483 for the whole of his service, both Inferior and Superior (see Article 460).

CHAPTER XXI.—RE-EMPLOYMENT OF PENSIONERS.

SECTION I.—CIVIL PENSIONERS.

Notice of Re-employment.—510. When a person who was formerly in Government employ is re-employed, whether temporarily or permanently, the authority re-appointing him shall specifically state in the order of re-appointment whether he received any gratuity, bonus, or pension, on retirement, and shall communicate a copy of this order to the Audit Officer, and, if necessary, direct that the proper deductions be made from pension or salary as required by the rules in this Chapter.

After Compensation Gratuity.—511. An officer who has obtained a Compensation gratuity, if re-employed in qualifying service, may either retain his gratuity, in which case his former service will not count for future pension, or refund it and count his former service.

512. The intention to refund must be stated immediately on re-employment; but the refund may be made by monthly instalments of not less than one-third of the officer's salary, and also not less than the whole gratuity divided by the number of months which have elapsed since the end of the service for which the gratuity was given. The right to count previous service does not revive till the whole amount is refunded.

513. The attention of every officer who is re-employed should be specially called to Article 512 by the authority re-employing him, and, whenever he becomes aware of such an appointment, by the Audit Officer; but the failure of such authority to do this will not be admitted as a ground for allowing the refund at a later date.

After Compensation Pension.—514. (a) An officer who has obtained a Compensation pension, if re-employed, may retain his pension in addition to his pay: Provided that, if he is re-employed in a Government establishment or in an establishment paid from an Incorporated Local Fund, the pension shall remain wholly or partly in abeyance, if the sum total of the pension and the pay on re-employment exceeds the pay of the appointment on abolition of which the pension was given.

(b) If his re-employment is in qualifying service, he may either retain his pension (subject to the proviso above stated), in which case his former service will not count for future pension, or cease to draw any part of his pension and count his previous service. Pension intermediately drawn need not be refunded.

NOTE.—An officer counts his previous service under clause (b) if on re-employment his pension remains wholly in abeyance under the proviso to clause (a).

516. If an officer does not, within three months from the date of his re-employment, exercise the option conceded by Article 514, of ceasing to draw pension and counting his former service, he may not thereafter do so without the permission of the Local Government.

517. An officer who, under Article 514, draws pension in addition to pay, shall, during leave of absence from his new office, draw so much of his pension as will bring his whole allowances during leave up to the amount which would have been admissible to him if he had taken leave of the same kind under the same circumstances while holding his abolished appointment: Provided that his allowances on leave shall never be less than his pension.

After Invalid Pension.—519. There is no bar to the re-employment of an officer who has regained health after obtaining Invalid pension, or if an officer is invalidated as being incapacitated for employment in a particular branch of the service, to his re-employment in some other branch of the service. The rules in such a case as to refunding gratuity, drawing pension, and counting service, are the same as in the case of re-employment after Compensation pension.

After Superannuation Pension.—520. An officer who has obtained a Superannuation pension is, by the nature of the case, excluded from re-employment in the general service, but may, with the sanction of the Local Government, which should be given only on strong public grounds, be re-employed in service paid from a Local Fund. If so re-employed, he is permitted to retain his pension. An officer who is superannuated may not be re-employed on the ground that he was entitled to a Retiring pension.

After Retiring Pension.—521. An officer who has obtained a Retiring pension cannot be re-employed either in the general service or in service paid from an Incorporated Local Fund, except on strong public grounds, and with the express sanction of the Government of India in the Finance Department, or, if pensions are a Provincial charge, of the Local Government. If so re-employed, he is permitted to draw pension in addition to full pay.

SECTION II.—MILITARY PENSIONERS.

525. Except where it is otherwise expressly stated, the foregoing rules do not apply to a Military pensioner in Civil employ. The claims of such an officer to salary and pension in the Civil Department are not affected by his Military pension. But if the Army pension of a soldier in Civil employ who continues to serve in his Civil appointment after he has earned a Military pension, is payable, wholly or in part, from Indian Revenues, his salary in the Civil Department will be reduced by an amount equal to so much of his pension as is payable from Indian Revenues.

526. The salary in the Civil Department of a Commissioned Military Officer, not being a Native of India, whether the pay of his office be consolidated or staff pay, shall be reduced by the amount of any annuity, pension, or pensionary allowances, other than a good service pension or a pension obtained after a prescribed period of service otherwise than on medical certificate, which he receives in the Military Department. If he has commuted any such allowance for a single capital payment, the same deduction will be made from his Civil salary as would have been made, had he not done so.

527. The pension of the heir of a Native Commissioned or Non-Commissioned officer or soldier, or of the heir of a Medical subordinate, will, during employment in any Civil department, merge in his salary.

528. Provided always that an Invalid Native Commissioned officer shall receive only so much of his Invalid pension as, with his Civil pay, will make his whole allowances equal to his Military pay and allowances immediately before his retirement. If, therefore, the pay of his Civil appointment is not less than his Military pay and allowances at the date of his retirement, he receives no portion of his Military pension.

Exception.—The pensions of Army pensioners who enlist into the Burma Military Police are held in abeyance during the time they continue to serve in that Force. But the gratuities granted to discharged soldiers enlisting into the Burma Military Police need not be refunded.

SECTION III.—PENSION FOR NEW SERVICE.

529. Except as provided in Articles 525 to 528, an officer who, having been discharged with a pension, is subsequently re-employed, may not count his new service for a separate pension. Pension (if any) is admissible only for the new service combined with the old, the whole being counted as one service.

530. If an officer who has obtained a Compensation or Invalid pension is re-employed in pensionable service and retains the pension (see Article 514), the pension or gratuity admissible for his subsequent service is subject to the following limitation, namely, that the gratuity or the capital value of the pension shall not be greater than the difference between the value of the pension that would be admissible at the time of the officer's final retirement, if the two periods of service were combined, and the value of the pension already granted for the previous service.

Illustration.—A, who had retired at the age of forty after eighteen years' service on a Compensation pension of Rs. 90 (his salary having been Rs. 300), was re-employed after six years in an appointment on Rs. 200, continuing to draw his pension, and finally retired at the age of fifty-five. For the second period of service, the gratuity ordinarily admissible would be Rs. 1,800. But, if the two periods were combined, the pension admissible would be Rs. 100. The difference between the value of this pension and of the pension previously granted, at the age of fifty-five, is by Table A, Appendix 10, Rs. 1,386. The gratuity must therefore be reduced to Rs. 1,386.

531. (a) If a gratuity received for the earlier service has not been refunded, gratuity or pension (as the case may be) may be allowed for the subsequent service, on condition that the amount of such gratuity or the present value of such pension calculated according to Table A* in Appendix 10 of the *Civil Service Regulations*, 1902, *plus* the amount of the previous gratuity, shall not exceed the amount of gratuity or the present value of the pension that would have been admissible, had the gratuity received for the earlier service been refunded.

(b) If the amount of such gratuity or the present value of such pension, *plus* the amount of previous gratuity, exceed the amount of gratuity or the present value of the pension that would have been admissible if the gratuity received for the earlier service had been refunded, the excess must be disallowed.

* An arbitrary Table, laying down the present value of monthly payments of varying amount and duration.

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APPENDIX I.

STATISTICS
OF CIVIL AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE
IN BURMA DURING THE
YEARS 1900-04

CIVIL JUSTICE.

- Table I. Number and Description of Civil Suits instituted in the Civil Courts.
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- Table V. Number of Offences reported, and Number of Persons tried, convicted, and acquitted in the Criminal Courts.
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APPENDIX I.

STATISTICS

OF CIVIL AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE

IN BURMA DURING THE

YEARS 1900-04

TABLE I. CIVIL JUSTICE.

NUMBER AND DESCRIPTION OF CIVIL SUITS INSTITUTED IN THE CIVIL COURTS OF
BURMA DURING THE YEARS 1900-04.

Nature of Suits.	Year.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Total Burma.	Nature of Suits	Year.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Total Burma.
Suits for money or movable property.	1900	38,368	13,506	51,874	Suits relating to religious or other endow- ments.	1900	7	2	9
	1901	37,162	15,778	52,940		1901	18	3	21
	1902	40,995	18,476	59,471		1902	12	3	15
	1903	43,902	19,190	63,092		1903	5	2	7
	1904	46,824	19,158	65,982		1904	13	2	15
Suits for im- movable property.	1900	1,470	925	2,395	Matrimonial suits.	1900	441	332	773
	1901	1,528	787	2,315		1901	481	344	825
	1902	1,376	657	2,033		1902	488	348	836
	1903	1,464	670	2,134		1903	528	385	913
	1904	1,552	765	2,317		1904	516	389	905
Suits for specific relief.	1900	273	73	346	Testamentary suits.	1900	12	—	12
	1901	262	78	340		1901	11	—	11
	1902	262	74	336		1902	15	4	19
	1903	371	76	447		1903	16	5	21
	1904	408	94	502		1904	26	5	31
Suits to estab- lish a right of pre-emption.	1900	34	6	40	Other suits not falling under any of the pre- vious heads.	1900	510	162	672
	1901	13	7	20		1901	525	214	739
	1902	21	1	22		1902	525	205	730
	1903	33	6	39		1903	498	185	683
	1904	26	9	35		1904	488	209	697
Mortgage suits.	1900	599	275	874	Grand total of civil suits insti- tuted.	1900	41,714	15,281	56,995
	1901	743	189	932		1901	40,743	17,400	58,143
	1902	971	185	1,156		1902	44,665	19,953	64,618
	1903	1,153	167	1,320		1903	47,970	20,686	68,656
	1904	1,741	199	1,940		1904	51,594	20,830	72,424

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TABLE II. CIVIL JUSTICE.

NUMBER AND VALUE OF SUITS INSTITUTED IN THE CIVIL COURTS OF BURMA DURING
THE YEARS 1900-04.

Value of Suits.	Year.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Total Burma.	Value of Suits.	Year.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Total Burma.
Not exceeding Rs. 10.	1900	3,938	1,891	5,829	Above Rs.	1900	642	121	763
	1901	3,600	1,976	5,576	1,000 and	1901	755	190	945
	1902	3,736	2,100	5,836	not ex-	1902	926	200	1,126
	1903	3,712	2,188	5,900	ceeding	1903	989	235	1,224
	1904	3,982	2,321	6,303	Rs. 5,000.	1904	1,204	228	1,432
Above Rs. 10 and not exceeding Rs. 50.	1900	16,325	6,515	22,840	Above Rs.	1900	67	14	81
	1901	15,646	7,318	22,964	5,000 and	1901	61	13	74
	1902	16,103	8,513	24,616	not ex-	1902	77	31	108
	1903	17,294	8,451	25,745	ceeding Rs.	1903	68	20	88
	1904	17,704	8,458	26,162	10,000.	1904	99	22	121
Above Rs. 50 and not exceeding Rs. 100.	1900	8,563	3,002	11,565	Above Rs. 10,000.	1900	42	2	44
	1901	8,329	3,551	11,880		1901	43	14	57
	1902	8,975	3,931	12,906		1902	49	15	64
	1903	10,503	4,291	14,794		1903	42	15	57
	1904	10,728	4,237	14,965		1904	80	4	84
Above Rs. 100 and not exceeding Rs. 500.	1900	9,901	2,949	12,850	Number of suits the value of which cannot be estimated in money.	1900	1,137	530	1,667
	1901	10,023	3,502	13,525		1901	1,131	556	1,687
	1902	12,174	4,218	16,392		1902	1,147	584	1,731
	1903	12,746	4,556	17,302		1903	1,237	599	1,836
	1904	14,910	4,536	19,446		1904	1,146	658	1,804
Above Rs. 500 and not exceeding Rs. 1,000.	1900	1,099	257	1,356	Total value of suits instituted (in rupees).	1900	7,558,253	1,610,872	9,169,125
	1901	1,155	280	1,435		1901	7,157,070	2,299,929	9,456,999
	1902	1,478	361	1,839		1902	10,539,294	2,465,737	13,005,031
	1903	1,379	331	1,710		1903	10,306,023	2,645,208	12,951,231
	1904	1,741	366	2,107		1904	12,408,375	2,829,233	15,237,608

TABLE III. CIVIL JUSTICE.

GENERAL RESULT OF THE TRIAL OF CIVIL CASES IN THE COURTS OF ORIGINAL JURISDICTION IN BURMA DURING THE YEARS 1900-04.

A. Civil Suits.

	Year.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Total Burma.		Year.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Total Burma.
Number of suits pending from previous year.	1900	2,919	715	3,634	Without contest.	1900	336	188	524
	1901	3,135	776	3,911		1901	378	221	599
	1902	3,856	1,003	4,859	Dismissed <i>ex parte</i> .	1902	388	230	618
	1903	3,959	1,182	5,141		1903	297	178	475
	1904	3,745	1,368	5,113		1904	289	165	454
Total number of suits before the Courts.	1900	44,975	16,013	60,988	On arbitration.	1900	53	13	66
	1901	44,155	18,194	62,349	For plaintiff.	1901	46	31	77
	1902	48,910	21,015	69,925		1902	54	41	95
	1903	52,305	21,935	74,240		1903	37	20	57
	1904	55,665	22,344	78,009		1904	43	22	65
Disposed of without trial.	1900	9,155	2,546	11,701	On arbitration.	1900	17	7	24
	1901	8,473	2,939	11,412	For defendant.	1901	31	11	42
	1902	9,297	3,623	12,920		1902	21	6	27
	1903	10,462	3,999	14,461		1903	11	3	14
	1904	10,329	4,557	14,886		1904	9	8	17
Without contest.	1900	2,673	2,133	4,806	With contest. Judgment for plaintiff in whole or in part.	1900	9,446	3,573	13,019
Compromised.	1901	2,838	2,249	5,087		1901	8,508	3,906	12,414
	1902	3,102	2,134	5,236		1902	9,213	4,118	13,331
	1903	2,897	1,904	4,801		1903	10,066	4,086	14,152
	1904	3,073	1,780	4,853		1904	9,826	4,554	14,380
Without contest.	1900	5,935	2,935	8,870	With contest. Judgment for defendant.	1900	4,316	1,673	5,989
Decreed on confession.	1901	6,100	3,820	9,920		1901	4,055	1,698	5,753
	1902	7,342	5,194	12,536		1902	4,345	1,748	6,093
	1903	8,183	5,687	13,870		1903	4,888	1,819	6,707
	1904	9,156	5,291	14,447		1904	4,935	1,915	6,850
Without contest.	1900	9,909	2,169	12,078	Number of cases pending at the close of the year.	1900	3,135	776	3,911
Decreed <i>ex parte</i> .	1901	9,870	2,316	12,186		1901	3,856	1,003	4,859
	1902	11,189	2,739	13,928		1902	3,959	1,182	5,141
	1903	11,719	2,871	14,590		1903	3,745	1,368	5,113
	1904	13,063	2,885	15,948		1904	4,942	1,167	6,109

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TABLE III.—*Continued.**B. Miscellaneous Cases.*

	Year.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Total Burma.		Year.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Total Burma.
Number of suits pending from previous year.	1900	516	86	602	Without con- test. Dismissed <i>ex</i> <i>parte</i> .	1900	100	25	125
	1901	560	93	653		1901	89	22	111
	1902	659	128	787		1902	87	32	119
	1903	722	220	942		1903	95	31	126
	1904	560	259	819		1904	114	30	144
Total number of suits before the Courts.	1900	10,177	1,487	11,664	On arbitration. For plaintiff.	1900	10	—	10
	1901	9,525	1,754	11,279		1901	6	—	6
	1902	8,017	2,504	10,521		1902	10	—	10
	1903	7,726	2,720	10,446		1903	12	—	12
	1904	7,116	2,591	9,707		1904	3	7	10
Disposed of without trial.	1900	4,053	282	4,335	On arbitration. For defendant.	1900	—	1	1
	1901	3,824	376	4,200		1901	11	1	12
	1902	1,685	511	2,196		1902	6	—	6
	1903	1,667	616	2,283		1903	4	—	4
	1904	1,300	528	1,828		1904	2	—	2
Without con- test. Compromised.	1900	435	118	553	With contest. Judgment for plaintiff in whole or in part.	1900	2,449	498	2,947
	1901	390	92	482		1901	2,189	653	2,842
	1902	443	154	597		1902	2,358	903	3,261
	1903	359	145	504		1903	2,290	854	3,144
	1904	314	118	432		1904	1,866	854	2,720
Without con- test. Decreed on con- fession.	1900	240	62	302	With contest. Judgment for defendant.	1900	1,495	313	1,808
	1901	249	80	329		1901	1,330	300	1,630
	1902	269	99	368		1902	1,592	497	2,089
	1903	380	117	497		1903	1,506	594	2,100
	1904	343	119	462		1904	1,526	651	2,177
Without contest. Decreed <i>ex</i> <i>parte</i> .	1900	835	95	930	Number of cases pending at the close of the year.	1900	560	93	653
	1901	778	102	880		1901	659	128	787
	1902	845	88	933		1902	722	220	942
	1903	853	104	957		1903	560	259	819
	1904	893	102	995		1904	755	182	937

TABLE IV. CIVIL JUSTICE.

BUSINESS OF THE CIVIL APPELLATE COURTS IN BURMA DURING THE YEARS
1900-04.

A. Appeals from Decrees.

	Year.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Total Burma.		Year.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Total Burma.
Number of ap- peals pending from previous year.	1900	520	171	691	Heard <i>ex parte</i> . Remanded.	1900	6	—	6
	1901	466	269	735		1901	4	—	4
	1902	522	261	783		1902	2	1	3
	1903	669	287	956		1903	5	—	5
	1904	665	253	918		1904	3	—	3
Total number of appeals before the Courts.	1900	3,048	1,899	4,947	Contested.	1900	1,401	910	2,311
	1901	3,031	1,981	5,012		1901	1,384	912	2,296
	1902	3,051	1,964	5,015	Confirmed.	1902	1,312	837	2,149
	1903	3,371	2,006	5,377		1903	1,560	1,003	2,563
	1904	3,376	2,128	5,504		1904	1,674	1,027	2,701
Decisions con- firmed under sect. 551 Civil Procedure Code, appeals dismissed for default or otherwise not prosecuted.	1900	83	68	151	Contested.	1900	206	145	351
	1901	102	125	227		1901	185	169	354
	1902	142	185	327	Modified.	1902	190	147	337
	1903	143	92	235		1903	179	155	334
	1904	154	93	247		1904	165	156	321
Heard <i>ex parte</i> . Confirmed.	1900	76	19	95	Contested.	1900	699	430	1,129
	1901	46	19	65		1901	713	445	1,158
	1902	58	22	80	Reversed.	1902	599	447	1,046
	1903	63	35	98		1903	674	428	1,102
	1904	43	21	64		1904	757	445	1,202
Heard <i>ex parte</i> . Modified.	1900	15	2	17	Contested.	1900	57	49	106
	1901	4	—	4		1901	52	39	91
	1902	7	2	9	Remanded.	1902	56	35	91
	1903	6	1	7		1903	59	35	94
	1904	2	—	2		1904	36	36	72
Heard <i>ex parte</i> . Reversed.	1900	39	7	46	Number of ap- peals pend- ing at the close of the year.	1900	466	269	735
	1901	19	11	30		1901	522	261	783
	1902	16	1	17		1902	669	287	956
	1903	17	4	21		1903	665	253	918
	1904	25	1	26		1904	517	349	866

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TABLE IV.—*Continued.**B. Miscellaneous Appeals.*

	Year.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Total Burma.		Year.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Total Burma.
Number of appeals pending from previous year.	1900	10	6	16	Heard <i>ex parte</i> .	1900	1	—	1
	1901	22	4	26	Remanded.	1901	—	—	—
	1902	41	4	45		1902	—	—	—
	1903	23	7	30		1903	—	—	—
	1904	26	8	34		1904	1	—	1
Total number of appeals before the Courts.	1900	136	101	237	Contested.	1900	44	44	88
	1901	170	92	262	Rejected.	1901	51	21	72
	1902	158	123	281		1902	42	61	103
	1903	153	117	270		1903	60	54	114
	1904	172	120	292		1904	66	42	108
Decisions confirmed under sect. 551 Civil Procedure Code, appeals dismissed for default or otherwise not prosecuted.	1900	3	8	11	Contested.	1900	15	5	20
	1901	12	21	33	Modified.	1901	13	8	21
	1902	11	11	22		1902	14	4	18
	1903	15	17	32		1903	9	5	14
	1904	11	17	28		1904	11	10	21
Heard <i>ex parte</i> . Rejected.	1900	9	7	16	Contested.	1900	33	29	62
	1901	11	4	15	Decreed or Granted.	1901	25	27	52
	1902	24	4	28		1902	28	29	57
	1903	6	2	8		1903	30	27	57
	1904	13	10	23		1904	34	26	60
Heard <i>ex parte</i> . Modified.	1900	1	—	1	Contested.	1900	6	2	8
	1901	—	1	1	Remanded.	1901	8	3	11
	1902	3	—	3		1902	4	5	9
	1903	2	1	3		1903	4	—	4
	1904	3	1	4		1904	5	1	6
Heard <i>ex parte</i> . Decreed or Granted.	1900	2	2	4	Number of appeals pending at the close of the year.	1900	22	4	26
	1901	9	3	12		1901	41	4	45
	1902	9	2	11		1902	23	7	30
	1903	1	3	4		1903	26	8	34
	1904	2	4	6		1904	26	9	35

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TABLE V. CRIMINAL JUSTICE.

NUMBER OF OFFENCES REPORTED, AND NUMBER OF PERSONS TRIED, CONVICTED, AND ACQUITTED IN THE CRIMINAL COURTS OF BURMA, 1900-04.

	Year.	CASES.			PERSONS.				
		Number of offences reported.	Number returned as true.	Number brought to trial.	Under trial during year, including those pending from previous year.	Acquitted or discharged.	Convicted.	Died, escaped, etc.	Remaining under trial at end of year.
Lower Burma.	1900	57,060	54,053	54,826	92,041	33,749	55,289	214	2,789
	1901	55,643	52,314	53,953	91,081	34,093	53,697	393	2,898
	1902	56,573	53,349	55,475	93,426	34,376	55,304	250	3,496
	1903	61,292	57,609	59,823	96,600	35,745	57,122	589	3,144
	1904	67,264	60,775	66,437	108,525	40,375	63,338	580	4,232
Upper Burma.	1900	17,512	15,325	16,664	30,073	9,351	20,077	169	476
	1901	17,031	14,919	16,208	32,237	10,700	20,728	200	609
	1902	17,701	15,515	16,888	33,967	11,089	21,745	130	1,003
	1903	17,695	15,507	16,927	35,114	12,637	21,518	220	739
	1904	19,868	17,560	19,105	37,861	13,534	23,134	301	892
Total Burma.	1900	74,572	69,378	71,490	122,114	43,100	75,366	383	3,265
	1901	72,674	67,233	70,161	123,318	44,793	74,425	593	3,507
	1902	74,274	68,864	72,363	127,393	45,465	77,049	380	4,499
	1903	78,987	73,116	76,750	131,714	48,382	78,640	809	3,883
	1904	87,132	78,335	85,542	146,386	53,909	86,472	881	5,124

TABLE VI. CRIMINAL JUSTICE.
PUNISHMENTS INFLICTED BY THE CRIMINAL COURTS OF BURMA, 1900-04.

	Year.	PERSONS SENTENCED TO							Persons ordered to give security to keep the peace or for good behaviour.	Persons imprisoned in default of giving security.	Number of boys whose sentences were commuted to detention in a reformatory school.
		Death.	Trans- portation.	Imprisonment.		Forfeiture of property.	Fine.	Whipping.			
				Rigorous.	Simple.						
Lower Burma.	1900	44	152	10,206	165	4	39,939	2,402	3,296	2,215	7
	1901	62	186	9,846	136	—	39,505	2,250	2,929	1,815	9
	1902	42	229	9,837	361	—	40,912	2,313	2,433	1,486	8
	1903	73	289	10,269	319	2	42,424	2,427	2,397	1,311	15
	1904	67	355	10,150	245	1	48,449	2,230	2,528	1,457	11
Upper Burma.	1900	18	73	2,500	59	—	16,246	718	462	90	7
	1901	14	41	2,609	60	—	17,529	678	513	91	4
	1902	16	45	2,700	58	2	18,219	734	554	90	2
	1903	20	58	3,198	76	—	17,414	789	649	135	5
	1904	18	60	3,071	60	1	19,325	633	579	126	3
Total Burma.	1900	62	225	12,706	224	4	56,185	3,120	3,758	2,305	14
	1901	76	227	12,455	196	—	57,124	2,928	3,442	1,906	13
	1902	58	274	12,537	419	2	59,131	3,047	2,987	1,576	10
	1903	93	347	13,467	395	2	59,838	3,216	3,046	1,446	20
	1904	85	415	13,221	305	2	67,774	2,863	3,107	1,583	14

TABLE VII. CRIMINAL JUSTICE.
DETAILS OF PUNISHMENTS INFLICTED BY THE CRIMINAL COURTS OF BURMA, 1900-04.

	Year.	NUMBER OF PERSONS FINED.							NUMBER OF PERSONS IMPRISONED.						PERSONS WHIPPED.		
		Rs. 10 and under.	Above Rs. 10 to Rs. 50.	Above Rs. 50 to Rs. 100.	Above Rs. 100 to Rs. 500.	Above Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000.	Above Rs. 1,000.		15 days and under.	Above 15 days to 6 months.	Above 6 months to 2 years.	Above 2 years to 7 years.	Above 7 years.	10 stripes and under.	From 11 to 20 stripes.	From 21 to 30 stripes.	
Lower Burma.	1900	30,608	8,826	896	191	17	1		866	5,951	5,195	573	1	325	1,140	937	
	1901	29,620	8,754	917	286	15	3		765	5,673	4,771	574	14	303	1,156	791	
	1902	29,820	9,666	1,078	318	29	1		1,191	5,318	4,413	694	68	269	1,155	889	
	1903	30,501	10,500	1,071	317	30	5		915	5,746	4,547	682	9	254	1,116	1,057	
	1904	36,651	10,501	1,004	284	9	—		946	5,305	4,810	779	12	234	1,156	840	
Upper Burma.	1900	13,368	2,626	171	75	5	1		277	1,514	622	143	3	95	375	248	
	1901	14,249	2,981	199	88	9	3		276	1,566	776	129	12	79	318	281	
	1902	15,230	2,704	229	52	4	—		306	1,554	790	198	—	84	352	298	
	1903	14,095	3,040	212	64	3	—		406	1,885	896	207	15	115	381	293	
	1904	14,914	3,949	357	100	4	1		340	1,815	882	217	3	80	291	262	
Total Burma.	1900	43,976	10,852	1,067	266	22	2		1,143	7,465	5,817	716	4	420	1,515	1,185	
	1901	43,869	11,735	1,116	374	24	6		1,041	7,239	5,547	703	26	382	1,474	1,072	
	1902	45,050	12,370	1,307	370	33	1		1,497	6,872	5,203	892	68	353	1,507	1,187	
	1903	44,596	13,540	1,283	381	33	5		1,321	7,631	5,443	889	24	369	1,497	1,350	
	1904	51,565	14,450	1,361	384	13	1		1,286	7,120	5,692	996	15	314	1,447	1,102	

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

TABLE VIII. CRIMINAL JUSTICE.
RESULT OF APPEALS AND REVISIONS IN CRIMINAL CASES IN BURMA, 1900-04.

NUMBER OF PERSONS.												
Year.	Appellants and applicants for revision before the Courts.	Died, escaped, etc.	Appeals or applications rejected.	Sentence or order confirmed.	Sentence enhanced.	Sentence reduced or otherwise altered.	Sentence revised.	Proceedings quashed.	New trial or further inquiry ordered.	Referred for revision to the High Court.	Pending trial.	
Lower Burma.	1900	18,037	11	2,596	10,982	33	942	1,103	19	203	676	1,112
	1901	17,763	3	2,072	12,060	35	884	1,178	13	238	418	862
	1902	21,231	15	2,808	13,521	63	1,011	1,415	18	243	641	1,496
	1903	21,282	11	3,566	13,179	72	991	1,556	12	248	512	1,135
	1904	22,754	19	2,684	15,187	38	873	1,727	19	249	642	1,316
Upper Burma.	1900	12,494	3	718	9,262	46	577	756	59	116	380	577
	1901	13,833	—	1,347	9,947	60	508	560	18	218	321	854
	1902	12,058	2	1,239	8,820	75	351	670	5	185	262	449
	1903	11,864	1	1,174	8,802	51	402	702	4	84	296	348
	1904	12,140	6	756	9,445	40	468	672	11	102	147	493
Total Burma.	1900	30,531	14	3,674	20,244	79	1,519	1,859	78	319	1,056	1,689
	1901	31,596	3	3,419	22,007	95	1,392	1,738	31	456	739	1,716
	1902	33,289	17	4,047	22,341	138	1,362	2,085	23	428	903	1,945
	1903	33,146	12	4,740	21,981	123	1,393	2,258	16	332	808	1,483
	1904	34,894	25	3,440	24,632	78	1,341	2,399	30	351	789	1,809

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APPENDIX J.

STATISTICS OF POLICE AND
OF CRIME

- Table I. Strength of Civil and of Military Police during the Calendar Years 1899-1903.
- Table II. Total Cost of Civil and Military Police during the Official Years 1900-01 to 1904-05.
- Table III. Detailed Cost of the Military Police during the Calendar Years 1899-1903.
- Table IV. Detailed Cost of the Rangoon Town Police during the Calendar Years 1900-04.
- Table V. Number of Cases of Crime and of Minor Offences returned as True in Lower and in Upper Burma during the Calendar Years 1900-04.
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APPENDIX J.

STATISTICS OF POLICE AND OF CRIME

TABLE I.

STRENGTH OF CIVIL AND OF MILITARY POLICE DURING THE CALENDAR YEARS
1899-1903.

	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.
A. CIVIL POLICE PAID FOR FROM IMPERIAL OR PROVINCIAL REVENUES:					
1. <i>District Police:</i>					
Inspector-General, and Deputy and Assistant Inspectors-General	3	3	3	3	3
District and Assistant District Superintendents	96	91	93	91	91
Inspectors	124	121	147	150	153
Deputy Inspectors, Sub-inspectors, or Chief or European Constables	51	51	51	51	55
Head Constables or Sergeants	1,362	1,366	1,371	1,377	1,427
Mounted Constables	470	470	470	470	502
Foot Constables	10,516	10,513	10,516	10,554	10,733
Water Constables	156	176	176	192	193
Total District Police	12,778	12,791	12,827	12,888	13,157
2. <i>Rangoon Town Police:</i>					
Commissioner	*	1	1	1	1
District and Assistant District Superintendents	*	3	3	3	3
Inspectors	*	13	13	13	15
Deputy Inspectors, Sub-inspectors, or Chief or European Constables	*	10	10	18	18
Head Constables or Sergeants	*	66	66	67	68
Foot Constables	*	737	737	737	750
Water Constables	*	—	—	—	—
Total Rangoon Town Police		830	830	839	855
B. CIVIL POLICE PAID FOR WHOLLY FROM OTHER THAN IMPERIAL OR PROVINCIAL REVENUES:					
<i>District Police</i> { Officers	10	10	17	8	5
{ Men	78	78	117	71	40
<i>Rangoon Town Police</i> { Officers	*	7	7	7	10
{ Men	*	28	36	36	41
Total of B { Officers	10	17	24	15	15
{ Men	78	106	153	107	81
Total Civil Police { Officers	1,553	1,654	1,668	1,667	1,707
{ Men	11,305	12,080	12,133	12,131	12,297

* The Rangoon Town Police was only constituted a separate force in 1899, and its first report covering a complete year was for 1900. Prior to 1900 the statistics for Rangoon Town are incorporated in the statistics of the District Police.

TABLE I.—*Continued.*STRENGTH OF CIVIL AND OF MILITARY POLICE DURING THE CALENDAR YEARS
1899-1903.

	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.
C. MILITARY POLICE:					
Commandants	12	12	12	12	12
Assistant Commandants	33	26	30	33	31
Subadars	124	131	131	135	132
Jemadars	221	223	234	228	232
Havildars	757	763	775	774	763
Naiks	497	501	500	491	496
Sepoys	12,812	13,200	13,105	13,132	13,129
Buglers	246	257	266	265	267
Total Military Police	14,702	15,113	15,053	15,070	15,062
D. SUMMARY:					
Civil Police paid for from Imperial or Prov. Revenue.	District Police	{ Officers	1,543	1,544	1,551
		{ Men .	11,227	11,237	11,243
	Rangoon Town P.	{ Officers	*	93	93
		{ Men .	*	737	737
Civil Police paid for from Other Sources.	District Police	{ Officers	10	10	17
		{ Men .	78	78	117
	Rangoon Town P.	{ Officers	*	7	7
		{ Men .	*	28	36
Total Civil Police.	District Police	{ Officers	1,553	1,554	1,568
		{ Men .	11,305	11,315	11,360
	Rangoon Town P.	{ Officers	*	100	100
		{ Men .	*	765	773
Grand Total Civil Police		{ Officers	1,553	1,654	1,668
		{ Men .	11,305	12,080	12,133
Grand Total Military Police		{ Officers	390	392	409
		{ Men .	14,312	14,721	14,644
Grand Total Civil and Military Police		{ Officers	1,943	2,046	2,077
		{ Men .	25,617	26,801	26,777
		{ Total	27,560	28,847	28,854
				28,668	28,868
					2,114
					26,952
					29,066

* See note on previous page.

TABLE II.

TOTAL COST OF CIVIL AND MILITARY POLICE DURING THE OFFICIAL YEARS 1900-01
TO 1904-05.

(In Rupees.)

	1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.	1904-05.
Provincial Superintending Officers of the District Police	146,544	130,556	141,546	136,271	145,774
<i>District Executive Force:</i>					
District Superintendents and Assistants	564,430	556,649	546,287	540,577	599,879
Inspectors, Constables, etc.	2,529,262	2,571,380	2,598,983	2,658,748	2,679,748
Police Training Schools	—	695	3,113	3,297	3,009
Office and other Establishments	65,713	66,145	65,829	68,189	68,614
Clothing	135,836	130,006	123,799	142,340	161,493
Arms, Accoutrements, and Ordnance Stores	37,966	35,457	5,139	30,078	62,590
Rewards	75,559	84,167	86,721	91,878	108,271
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	17,018	20,651	26,250	27,260	30,806
Service Postage and Telegrams	15,865	17,718	18,928	22,338	23,748
Travelling and Tour Charges	236,231	244,475	224,615	232,381	246,308
House Rent and other Allowances	107,150	83,296	81,076	84,808	94,117
Petty Construction and Repairs	60,476	159,045	99,084	219,314	212,648
Purchase and Hire of Boats	5,263	7,360	5,505	8,296	6,101
Compensation for Dearness of Provisions	84	—	242	783	561
Miscellaneous	77,350	76,275	84,407	84,655	86,786
Total District Executive Force	3,928,203	4,053,319	3,969,978	4,214,942	4,384,679
Municipal and Cantonment Police	20,109	20,143	18,117	12,425	3,998
Village Police	27,156	25,218	22,733	21,042	19,766
Special Police *	5,027,007	5,236,012	5,229,910	5,167,810	5,471,674
Railway Police	8,011	21,905	33,145	34,327	40,719
Cattle Pounds	5,571	5,538	6,329	9,579	14,265
Steam Boiler Inspection and Establishment Charges	15,039	20,666	22,956	27,062	32,108
Miscellaneous	210	267	205	230	100
Refunds	6,489	7,092	11,578	10,193	5,495
Grand Total Expenditure	9,184,339	9,520,816	9,456,547	9,633,881	10,118,578

* Chiefly for Military Police, for which see Table III., and Rangoon Town Police, for which see Table IV.

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

TABLE III.

DETAILED COST OF THE MILITARY POLICE DURING THE CALENDAR YEARS 1899-1903.

(In Rupees.)

	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.
Pay of Commandants and Assistant Commandants	345,783	337,441	334,085	366,427	363,574
Travelling Allowances of Commandants and Assistant Commandants	68,713	66,985	66,603	70,778	74,325
Pay and Travelling Allowances of their Establishments	49,580	45,974	49,225	54,079	50,091
Total Pay of Native Officers	329,484	327,610	345,824	356,943	333,969
Total Pay of Non-commissioned Officers and Men	2,605,224	2,577,162	2,601,204	2,696,754	2,510,985
All other expenses not included under the above heads	803,474	850,835	853,554	942,901	907,014
Total Cost	4,806,142	4,753,078	4,948,679	5,290,131	4,960,608

TABLE IV.

DETAILED COST OF THE RANGOON TOWN POLICE DURING THE CALENDAR YEARS 1900-1904.

(In Rupees.)

	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.
Pay and Travelling or other Allowances of Commissioner and of his Establishment	15,120	15,840	16,200	15,293	18,738
Pay and Travelling or other Allowances of District and Assistant District Superintendents and their Establishments	27,816	27,252	26,883	27,135	33,711
Pay of Subordinate Officers	77,280	74,580	74,044	80,963	89,258
Pay of Constables of all Classes	127,549	127,549	123,133	124,103	135,429
Horse and Travelling Allowances *	—	—	1,795	2,061	1,099
All other Expenses	57,427	59,271	61,719	64,529	61,542
Total Cost payable from Imperial and Provincial Revenues	305,192	304,492	303,724	314,084	321,887
Cost payable from other Sources	13,056	15,444	27,843	27,486	17,890
Grand Total Cost of Force	318,248	319,936	331,567	341,570	339,777

* Other than those included under previous heads.

TABLE V.

NUMBER OF CASES OF CRIME AND OF MINOR OFFENCES RETURNED AS TRUE IN LOWER AND IN UPPER BURMA DURING THE CALENDAR YEARS 1900-1904.

OFFENCES.	1900.		1901.		1902.		1903.		1904.	
	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.
Against the State . Army and Navy Relating to the Public Tranquillity	2	3	—	—	1	—	4	2	2	—
Against Public Tranquillity	7	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	1	—
By or relating to Public Servants	276	210	278	203	319	160	270	154	243	145
Contempts of Lawful Authority	152	72	141	52	126	50	143	38	128	58
False Evidence and Offences against Public Justice	297	82	441	89	348	63	515	99	317	85
Relating to Coin	620	136	638	132	615	136	548	161	600	183
Relating to Government Stamps	34	10	30	9	50	10	47	15	46	9
Relating to Weights and Measures	1	1	6	—	8	4	2	4	9	—
Affecting the Public Health, Safety, Convenience, Decency, and Morals	41	17	26	37	18	9	22	9	22	9
Relating to Religion	1,415	581	1,414	556	1,246	567	1,345	522	1,345	548
Affecting Life	55	11	45	17	45	19	34	14	51	8
Causing Miscarriage, Injuries to Unborn Children, Exposure of Infants, and the Concealment of Births	148	88	155	105	193	106	187	104	198	98
Hurt	10	5	5	5	3	4	7	—	4	1
Wrongful Restraint and Wrongful Confinement	4,408	1,441	4,557	1,669	5,060	1,810	5,155	1,971	5,314	1,925
Criminal Force and Assault	106	54	104	32	121	31	179	61	81	45
Kidnapping, Forcible Abduction Slavery, and Forced Labour	2,528	917	2,468	892	2,404	783	2,299	717	2,271	786
Rape	163	40	132	40	167	72	147	71	147	58
Unnatural Offence	88	51	72	52	97	72	105	51	99	59
Theft	3	2	3	4	5	4	12	4	1	4
Extortion	6,326	1,511	6,212	1,432	6,120	1,403	6,686	1,655	6,484	1,608
Robbery and Dacoity	110	14	116	16	105	10	87	13	81	17
Criminal Misappropriation of Property	175	48	172	39	161	59	221	89	250	63
	153	62	117	65	111	83	105	70	137	57

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

TABLE V.—Continued.

NUMBER OF CASES OF CRIME AND OF MINOR OFFENCES RETURNED AS TRUE IN LOWER AND IN UPPER BURMA DURING THE CALENDAR YEARS 1900-1904.

OFFENCES.	1900.		1901.		1902.		1903.		1904.	
	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.
Criminal Breach of Trust	536	207	514	225	575	205	566	224	627	245
Receiving of Stolen Property	221	65	223	71	191	59	203	161	150	67
Cheating	317	105	298	109	413	98	404	135	435	114
Fraudulent Deeds and Disposition of Property	17	3	27	8	32	4	17	3	7	5
Misconduct	732	315	748	276	754	284	911	264	1,067	334
Criminal Trespass	2,282	913	2,409	910	2,538	918	2,529	978	2,759	1,054
Relating to Documents and to Trade or Property Marks	27	26	36	12	42	17	41	33	40	18
Criminal Breach of Contracts of Service	68	8	51	1	22	1	8	2	76	2
Relating to Marriage	343	141	392	160	399	159	398	161	330	160
Defamation	189	98	166	126	217	139	273	120	205	154
Criminal Intimidation, Insult, and Annoyance	2,246	819	2,318	866	2,609	834	2,350	845	2,345	828
Under the Excise Act	2,208	558	2,222	559	2,557	657	3,172	620	2,762	1,036
Under the Forest Act and Rules	567	197	566	321	426	239	506	267	563	254
Under the Gambling Act	1,672	961	1,730	1,234	1,990	1,353	2,109	1,317	2,772	1,478
Under the Arms Act and Rules,	383	79	310	69	298	72	305	116	346	111
Under the Police Act	11,133	2,057	8,128	1,615	7,118	1,365	8,967	1,130	9,393	1,561
Under the Municipal Act and Rules	2,777	921	2,895	686	3,224	1,239	3,815	919	3,656	972
Under the Opium Act and Rules	1,394	328	1,321	332	2,105	428	2,307	365	1,958	862
Under the Railway Act	183	209	194	119	111	120	172	86	345	169
Under the Stamp Act and Rules	60	139	59	90	67	77	96	225	114	108
Under the Vaccination Act	20	5	279	—	8	2	783	11	1,657	3
Under other Special and Local Laws	9,560	1,815	10,289	1,597	10,330	1,700	9,555	1,798	11,928	2,259
Total	54,053	15,325	52,314	14,919	53,349	15,515	57,609	15,507	60,775	17,560
Grand Total Burma	69,378		67,233		68,864		73,116		78,335	

APPENDIX K.

STATISTICS RELATING TO THE JAILS OF BURMA

- Table I. Number of Convicts in each Jail during 1904.
- Table II. Religion, Age, Sex, and Education of Convicts admitted into the Jails during 1904.
- Table III. Comparative Statistics of each of the Jails, 1901, 1904. Daily average number of convicts; daily average number of persons under trial; daily average number of civil prisoners; total daily average prisoner population of all classes; total deaths from all causes among all classes of prisoners; ratio of deaths from all causes among all classes of prisoners per mille of average prisoner population; gross cost of maintaining and guarding prisoners; cash earnings of prisoners; net cost of maintaining and guarding prisoners; average gross cost per head of average prisoner population; average net cost per head of average prisoner population.
- Table IV. Sickness and Mortality amongst the Prisoners of all Classes in the Jails, 1904.
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APPENDIX K.

STATISTICS RELATING TO THE JAILS OF BURMA

TABLE I.
NUMBER OF CONVICTS IN EACH JAIL IN BURMA, 1904.

JAIL.	Remaining at close of 1903.		Imprisoned during 1904.		Daily average number of convicts during 1904.		Remaining at close of 1904.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Akyab	383	5	596	3	400	2	401	—
Kyaukpyu	99	—	217	1	94	—	113	—
Sandoway	55	3	193	6	56	1	57	—
Rangoon { Natives	2,065	21	2,211	97	1,912	21	1,882	30
{ Europeans	15	1	60	2	19	1	18	2
Insein	1,907	—	1,587	—	1,886	—	1,820	—
Prome	238	4	684	26	245	4	239	9
Paungdè	118	2	598	30	135	4	134	4
Ma-ubin	302	5	1,158	31	328	6	361	7
Bassein	827	4	1,093	37	799	7	894	12
Myangmya	291	3	657	24	433	4	628	3
Henzada	375	1	684	17	373	2	373	1
Myanaung	55	2	266	14	67	1	78	—
Thayetmyo	798	6	583	23	816	6	993	4
Moulmein	434	2	716	28	470	3	551	2
Tavoy	69	1	114	11	75	3	74	4
Mergui	52	2	168	7	49	1	48	—
Toungoo	355	8	447	14	366	8	351	6
Shwegyin	121	—	283	7	141	—	181	—
Mandalay	763	20	864	31	704	20	666	21
Bhamo	58	—	177	6	66	1	48	1
Katha	64	—	286	7	66	1	54	1
Shwebo	115	4	228	11	146	2	171	3
Monywa	79	2	159	16	74	2	82	3
Kindat	54	—	72	4	52	—	60	1
Myingyan	742	9	221	11	761	9	801	11
Pakòkku	52	—	277	30	46	2	30	—
Pagan	65	—	67	2	62	—	41	1
Minbu	67	—	211	3	58	—	8	—
Magwe	95	—	148	6	109	1	135	3
Taungdwingyi	68	1	129	7	49	1	29	1
Meiktila	86	3	260	16	66	1	64	—
Yamèthin	68	—	378	13	75	1	84	1
Total	10,935	109	15,792	541	10,998	115	11,474	131

TABLE II.

RELIGION, AGE, SEX, AND EDUCATION OF CONVICTS ADMITTED INTO
THE JAILS OF BURMA, 1904.

JAIL.	RELIGION.									
	Christians.		Muhamma- dans.		Hindus and Sikhs.		Buddhists.		All other classes.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Akyab	2	—	95	2	15	—	450	1	33	—
Kyaukpypu	—	—	5	—	4	—	199	1	9	—
Sandoway	—	—	15	—	—	—	176	6	2	—
Rangoon { Natives	—	—	231	2	352	8	1,621	87	3	—
{ Europeans	60	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Insein	—	—	20	—	69	—	1,473	—	24	—
Prome	—	—	6	—	16	1	648	25	14	—
Paungde	—	—	2	—	5	—	591	30	—	—
Ma-ubin	—	—	17	—	20	—	1,092	31	29	—
Bassein	—	—	18	1	23	1	1,037	35	6	—
Myaungmya	—	—	14	—	—	—	612	24	18	—
Henzada	—	—	15	—	11	—	658	17	—	—
Myanaung	—	—	2	1	1	—	263	13	—	—
Thayetmyo	—	—	5	1	18	2	551	20	7	—
Moulmein	1	—	90	2	66	3	389	21	166	2
Tavoy	—	—	5	—	1	—	108	11	—	—
Mergui	—	—	11	2	14	—	120	4	23	1
Toungoo	—	—	20	—	34	—	372	13	18	1
Shwegyin	1	—	12	—	11	—	259	7	—	—
Mandalay	2	—	87	—	64	—	625	31	61	—
Bhamo	1	—	6	—	4	—	26	4	140	2
Katha	—	—	5	—	25	1	150	6	105	—
Shwebo	1	—	5	—	11	—	208	11	3	—
Monywa	—	—	1	—	16	2	142	14	—	—
Kindat	—	—	3	—	6	—	62	4	1	—
Myingyan	—	—	5	—	2	—	204	10	9	1
Pakokku	—	—	4	—	9	—	260	30	4	—
Pagan	—	—	1	—	2	—	64	2	—	—
Minbu	1	—	5	—	8	—	196	3	—	—
Magwe	—	—	3	—	1	—	143	5	—	—
Taungdwingyi	—	—	—	—	1	—	128	7	—	—
Meiktila	—	—	20	1	15	—	214	15	10	—
Yamethin	1	—	16	1	11	1	347	11	2	—
Total	70	2	744	13	844	19	13,388	499	687	7

PRISON STATISTICS

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TABLE II.—Continued.

RELIGION, AGE, SEX, AND EDUCATION OF CONVICTS ADMITTED INTO
THE JAILS OF BURMA, 1904.

AGE.								EDUCATION.*		JAIL.
Under 16.		16 to 40.		40 to 60.		Above 60.		Able to read and write.	Illiterate or able to read only.	
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Males and Females.	Males and Females.	
2	—	465	1	114	2	15	—	230	369 Akyab
—	—	128	—	79	1	10	—	118	100 Kyaukpyu
1	—	169	4	21	1	2	1	87	112 Sandoway
29	—	1,904	78	254	18	24	1	1,340	968	Natives } Rangoon
—	—	51	1	7	1	2	—	61	1	Europeans }
6	—	1,390	—	188	—	3	—	1,203	384 Insein
3	1	583	21	93	3	5	1	503	207 Promé
5	1	492	24	91	4	10	1	392	236 Paungdè
1	2	971	21	177	6	9	2	687	502 Ma-ubin
5	1	929	26	150	10	9	—	780	350 Bassein
1	1	556	17	93	5	7	1	439	242 Myaungmya
6	1	572	10	102	6	4	—	561	140 Henzada
4	—	229	10	32	4	1	—	173	107 Myanaung
—	1	479	19	89	3	15	—	432	174 Thayetmyo
7	1	594	19	109	7	6	1	298	446 Moulmein
1	1	94	8	17	2	2	—	70	55 Tavoy
1	2	151	5	14	—	2	—	94	81 Mergui
—	—	394	12	48	1	5	1	275	186 Toungoo
1	1	247	6	33	—	2	—	183	107 Shwegyin
14	—	734	27	105	4	11	—	482	413 Mandalay
—	1	149	5	25	—	3	—	35	148 Bhamo
1	—	246	7	34	—	5	—	99	194 Katha
—	—	183	10	42	—	3	1	149	90 Shwebo
4	1	121	13	33	2	1	—	86	89 Mònywa
—	—	63	4	9	—	—	—	43	33 Kindat
1	—	190	7	28	4	2	—	151	81 Myingyan
7	5	247	21	22	4	1	—	155	152 Pakòkku
2	—	54	2	11	—	—	—	54	15 Pagan
3	—	186	2	20	1	2	—	136	78 Minbu
—	—	133	6	14	—	1	—	103	61 Magwe
19	2	92	3	17	2	1	—	93	43 Taungdwingyi
2	—	207	11	45	5	6	—	110	166 Meiktila
3	—	320	12	53	1	2	—	191	200 Yamèthin
129	22	13,323	412	2,169	97	171	10	9,813	6,520 Total

* Of the total able to read and write, only 37 were females; of those classed as illiterate or able to read only, 5,872 were wholly illiterate, and of these 504 were females.

TABLE III.

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF THE JAILS OF BURMA, 1901, 1904.

JAIL.	Daily average number of convicts.		Daily average number of persons under trial.		Daily average number of civil prisoners.	
	1901.	1904.	1901.	1904.	1901.	1904.
Akyab	312	402	13	19	1	1
Kyaukpyu	108	94	8	10	—	—
Sandoway	63	57	6	10	—	—
Rangoon { Natives . .	2,027	1,933	47	64	21	30
{ Europeans . .	14	21	1	2	—	—
Insein	1,782	1,886	14	26	—	—
Prome	298	250	21	33	1	1
Paungdè	123	139	3	32	—	3
Ma-ubin	336	334	27	22	4	5
Bassein	941	806	31	44	3	5
Myaungmya	360	436	24	20	3	2
Henzada	461	376	22	32	2	1
Myanaung	59	68	13	12	—	—
Thayetmyo	893	822	12	26	1	4
Moulmein	451	473	22	25	4	6
Tavoy	82	73	6	5	—	1
Mergui	31	50	7	7	—	—
Toungoo	373	373	12	20	1	1
Shwegyin	140	142	4	6	—	—
Mandalay	773	724	7	12	5	7
Bhamo	76	67	1	1	—	—
Katha	75	67	3	5	1	1
Shwebo	122	148	3	5	—	2
Mónywa	86	70	4	4	1	—
Kindat	41	52	1	1	—	—
Myingyan	816	770	3	8	—	—
Pakòkku	62	48	5	10	1	2
Pagan	72	63	1	2	—	—
Minbu	91	58	5	8	—	—
Magwe	91	110	3	8	1	1
Taungdwingyi	72	50	8	5	—	—
Meiktila	179	66	4	10	1	3
Yamèthin	102	76	8	17	2	4
Total	11,510	11,113	351	508	55	82

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TABLE III.—*Continued.*

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF THE JAILS OF BURMA, 1901, 1904.

Total daily average prisoner population of all classes.		Total deaths from all causes among all classes of prisoners.		Ratio of deaths from all causes among all classes of prisoners <i>per mille</i> of average prisoner population.		JAIL.
1901.	1904.	1901.	1904.	1901.	1904.	
326	422	7	12	21.47	28.44 Akyab
116	104	3	1	25.86	9.62 Kyaukpyu
70	67	2	—	28.57	— Sandoway
2,095	2,027	40	32	19.09	15.79	.. Natives {
15	23	—	—	—	—	.. Europeans } Rangoon
1,796	1,911	30	13	16.70	6.80 Insein
321	284	4	3	12.46	10.56 Prome
126	174	8	2	63.49	11.49 Paungda
367	360	3	5	8.18	13.89 Ma-ubin
975	855	4	18	4.10	21.05 Bassein
386	458	1	1	2.59	2.18 Myaungmya
484	409	6	5	12.40	12.22 Henzada
73	80	1	5	13.70	62.50 Myanaung
906	852	10	11	11.04	12.91 Thayetmyo
475	508	10	6	21.05	11.93 Moulmein
89	84	3	1	33.71	11.90 Tavoy
38	56	—	4	—	71.43 Mergui
386	394	2	5	5.18	12.69 Toungoo
144	148	2	—	13.89	— Shwegyin
784	744	13	59	16.58	79.30 Mandalay
77	68	4	2	51.95	29.41 Bhamo
80	73	2	4	25.00	54.79 Katha
126	155	1	3	7.94	19.35 Shwebo
90	80	—	2	—	25.00 Mōnywa
42	54	1	—	23.81	— Kindat
819	779	11	20	13.43	25.67 Myingyan
68	59	—	—	—	— Pakòkku
73	65	—	1	—	15.38 Pagan
96	66	5	—	52.08	— Minbu
95	118	1	—	10.53	— Magwe
80	56	—	1	—	17.86 Taungdwingyi
184	79	3	—	16.30	— Meiktila
112	97	4	2	35.71	20.62 Yamèthin
11,915	11,703	181	218	15.19	18.63 Total

THE PROVINCE OF BURMA

TABLE III.—*Continued.*

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF THE JAILS OF BURMA, 1901, 1904.

JAIL.	Gross cost of maintaining and guarding prisoners.		Cash earnings of prisoners.	
	1901.	1904.	1901.	1904.
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
Akyab	19,985	26,117	3,603	3,445
Kyaukpyu	11,247	10,846	1,067	1,266
Sandoway	6,713	7,140	677	315
Rangoon	155,702	122,123	53,931	42,652
Insein	111,268	92,527	26,475	41,650
Prome	20,549	16,319	6,756	5,261
Paungdè	8,860	9,060	235	3,170
Ma-ubin	16,188	16,165	2,746	12,123
Bassein	52,119	49,696	15,144	22,444
Myaungmya	31,028	26,155	209	2,867
Henzada	19,946	15,611	11,007	6,081
Myanaung	6,245	6,142	2,215	1,098
Thayetmyo	44,966	45,598	7,781	5,439
Moulmein	33,999	28,467	6,132	6,816
Tavoy	8,615	7,179	1,105	1,618
Mergui	4,807	7,270	333	429
Toungoo	25,290	20,463	9,974	7,653
Shwegyin	13,630	10,456	705	3,939
Mandalay	45,656	53,409	11,417	12,266
Bhamo	9,313	7,865	2,025	1,934
Katha	7,429	7,711	2,223	1,260
Shwebo	11,902	8,261	2,841	2,894
Mónywa	8,688	8,064	2,250	1,960
Kindat	5,613	5,315	914	1,407
Myingyan	50,086	46,361	19,778	24,303
Pakókku	6,889	6,230	1,160	879
Pagan	8,855	7,270	260	167
Minbu	7,981	6,982	1,654	1,752
Magwe	11,703	8,783	1,700	2,379
Taungdwingyi	8,407	7,362	934	685
Meiktila	13,591	6,674	535	1,307
Yamèthin	8,604	7,817	2,175	629
Total	795,874	705,468	199,558	222,103

PRISON STATISTICS

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TABLE III.—*Concluded.*

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF THE JAILS OF BURMA, 1901, 1904.

Net cost of maintaining and guarding prisoners.		Average gross cost per head of average prisoner population.		Average net cost per head of average prisoner population.		JAIL.
1901.	1904.	1901.	1904.	1901.	1904.	
Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	
16,381	22,672	61	61	50	53 Akyab
10,179	9,579	96	104	87	92 Kyaukpyu
6,036	6,824	95	106	86	101 Sandoway
101,770	79,470	73	59	48	38 Rangoon
84,792	50,876	61	48	47	26 Insein
13,792	11,057	64	57	42	38 Prome
8,624	5,889	70	52	68	33 Paungdè
13,441	4,041	44	44	36	11 Ma-ubin
36,974	27,251	53	58	37	31 Bassein
31,237	23,317	80	57	80	50 Myaungmya
8,938	9,529	41	38	18	23 Hensada
4,029	5,043	85	76	55	63 Myanaung
37,184	40,158	49	53	41	47 Thayetmyo
27,867	21,651	71	56	58	43 Moulmein
7,509	5,560	96	85	84	66 Tavoy
4,473	6,841	126	129	117	122 Mergui
15,315	12,809	65	51	39	32 Toungoo
12,924	6,516	94	70	89	44 Shwegyin
34,238	41,142	58	71	43	55 Mandalay
7,287	5,930	120	115	94	87 Bhamo
5,205	6,450	92	105	65	88 Katha
9,060	5,366	94	53	71	34 Shwebo
6,437	6,103	96	100	71	76 Mònywa
4,698	3,907	133	98	111	72 Kindat
30,307	22,057	61	59	37	28 Myingyan
5,728	5,351	101	105	84	90 Pakòkku
8,594	7,102	121	111	117	109 Pagan
6,326	5,229	83	105	65	79 Minbu
10,002	6,403	123	74	105	54 Magwe
7,472	6,676	105	131	93	119 Taungdwingyi
13,055	5,366	73	84	70	67 Meiktila
6,428	7,187	76	80	57	74 Yamèthin
596,316	483,364	66	60	50	41 Total

TABLE IV.

SICKNESS AND MORTALITY AMONGST THE PRISONERS OF ALL CLASSES IN THE JAILS OF BURMA, 1904.

JAIL.	Average daily prisoner population of all classes; i.e., convicts, persons under trial, and civil prisoners.		Number admitted into hospital during the year		Number of deaths in and out of the hospital during the year.		Ratio of deaths in and out of hospital <i>per mille</i> of average prisoner population.		
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Akyab	420	2	96	1	12	—	28.57	—	28.44
Kyaukpyu	104	—	40	—	1	—	9.62	—	9.62
Sandoway	66	2	26	—	—	—	—	—	—
Rangoon { Natives	2,005	22	848	34	31	1	15.46	45.45	15.79
{ Europeans	21	1	27	4	—	—	—	—	—
Insein	1,911	—	229	—	13	—	6.80	—	6.80
Prome	279	5	142	1	3	—	10.75	—	10.56
Paungdè	170	4	26	1	2	—	11.76	—	11.49
Ma-ubin	354	6	76	—	5	—	14.12	—	13.89
Bassein	847	7	309	1	18	—	21.25	—	21.05
Myaungmya	454	4	206	—	1	—	2.20	—	2.18
Henzada	406	3	96	—	5	—	12.32	—	12.22
Myanaung	80	1	34	1	5	—	62.50	—	62.50
Thayetmyo	844	7	340	1	11	—	13.03	—	12.91
Moulmein	498	5	216	5	6	—	12.05	—	11.93
Tavoy	81	3	31	3	1	—	12.35	—	11.90
Mergui	55	1	45	1	3	1	54.55	1,000.00	71.43
Toungoo	387	8	294	2	4	1	10.34	125.00	12.69
Shwegyin	147	—	61	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mandalay	723	20	593	16	59	—	81.60	—	79.30
Bhamo	67	1	94	—	2	—	29.85	—	29.41
Katha	71	2	33	—	4	—	56.34	—	54.79
Shwebo	153	2	33	—	3	—	19.61	—	19.35
Mônywa	78	2	17	—	1	1	12.82	500.00	25.00
Kindat	53	—	18	—	—	—	—	—	—
Myingyan	769	9	348	10	20	—	26.01	—	25.67
Pakôkku	56	2	3	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pagan	65	—	5	—	1	—	15.38	—	15.38
Minbu	66	—	80	—	—	—	—	—	—
Magwe	116	2	27	1	—	—	—	—	—
Taungdwingyi	55	1	5	1	1	—	18.18	—	17.86
Meiktila	77	1	31	—	—	—	—	—	—
Yamèthin	96	1	14	—	2	—	20.83	—	20.62
Total	11,577	126	4,443	83	214	4	18.48	31.75	18.63

APPENDIX L.

STATISTICS RELATING TO PUBLIC
INSTRUCTION IN BURMA
FOR THE YEAR 1905

- I. Table showing the number of Educational Institutions in Burma, the number of scholars on the rolls, and the average attendance, 1905.
- II. Table showing the stages of instruction of scholars in public schools for general instruction in Burma, 1905, differentiating the schools into English and Vernacular, and the pupils according to sex.
- III. Table showing the expenditure on Public Instruction in Burma, 1905, classified according to the objects of the expenditure and the origin of the sum expended for each object.
- IV. Table showing the classification of the scholars in the schools of Burma on March 31, 1905, according to sex, and race or creed.

I. TABLE SHOWING THE NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN BURMA, THE NUMBER OF SCHOLARS ON THE ROLLS, AND AVERAGE ATTENDANCE, 1905.

	UNDER PUBLIC MANAGEMENT.				UNDER PRIVATE MANAGEMENT.			TOTAL.		
	Managed by Government.		Managed by District or Municipal Boards.		Aided by Government or by District or Government Boards.			Under Public and under Private Management.		
	Number of Institutions.	Scholars on rolls March 31, 1905.	Average daily attendance, 1905.	Number of Institutions.	Scholars on rolls March 31, 1905.	Average daily attendance, 1905.	Number of Institutions.	Number of Institutions.	Scholars on rolls March 31, 1905.	Average daily attendance, 1905.
PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.										
<i>Collegiate Education.</i>										
Arts Colleges (English).	1	151	147	—	—	—	1	2	178	168
<i>School Education—General.</i>										
SECONDARY SCHOOLS.										
For Boys { High Schools	5	1,527	1,229	3	1,233	1,050	15	23	7,916	6,901
{ Middle Schools { English	1	115	90	13	2,863	1,867	46	60	10,011	8,052
{ Middle Schools { Vernacular	1	75	75	—	—	—	302	303	20,418	20,418
For Girls { High Schools	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	7	1,343	1,158
{ Middle Schools { English	—	—	—	—	—	—	14	14	1,231	913
{ Middle Schools { Vernacular	—	—	—	—	—	—	29	29	1,942	1,942
Total Secondary Schools	7	1,717	1,394	16	3,596	2,917	413	436	42,861	39,384
PRIMARY SCHOOLS										
For Boys	4	229	210	1	42	30	4,585	4,590	145,360	145,063
For Girls	1	34	34	—	—	—	444	445	15,129	15,057
Total Primary Schools	5	263	244	1	42	30	5,029	5,035	160,489	160,120

II. TABLE SHOWING THE STAGES OF INSTRUCTION OF PUPILS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR GENERAL INSTRUCTION IN BURMA, 1905, DIFFERENTIATING THE SCHOOLS INTO ENGLISH AND VERNACULAR, AND THE PUPILS ACCORDING TO SEX.

(PUPILS ON THE ROLLS MARCH 31, 1905.)

CLASS OF SCHOOLS.	Num- ber of Schools.	HIGH STAGE.			MIDDLE STAGE.			UPPER PRIMARY STAGE.			LOWER PRIMARY STAGE.			TOTAL.		
		Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Secondary Schools. Government { English Vernacular English Municipal English English Vernacular Vernacular Aided	6	283	6	289	492	—	492	418	1	419	430	12	442	1,623	19	1,642
	1	—	—	—	3	—	3	13	—	13	59	—	59	75	—	75
	16	125	2	127	901	1	902	1,006	3	1,009	1,534	24	1,558	3,566	30	3,596
	55	548	7	555	2,862	162	3,024	3,267	274	3,541	4,366	497	4,863	11,043	940	11,983
	308	9	—	9	1,986	88	2,074	4,152	537	4,689	10,612	3,665	14,277	16,759	4,290	21,049
Total	386	965	15	980	6,244	251	6,495	8,856	815	9,671	17,001	4,198	21,199	33,066	5,279	38,345
Government { English Vernacular English Municipal English English Vernacular Vernacular Aided	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	21	5	79	84	47	424	471	146	510	656	562	801	1,363	760	1,814	2,574
	29	—	—	—	61	123	189	139	219	358	579	816	1,396	779	1,163	1,942
	Total	50	5	84	108	562	660	285	729	1,014	1,141	1,617	2,758	1,539	2,977	4,516
Government { English Vernacular English Municipal English English Vernacular Vernacular Aided	6	283	6	289	492	—	492	418	1	419	430	12	442	1,623	19	1,642
	1	—	—	—	3	—	3	13	—	13	59	—	59	75	—	75
	16	125	2	127	901	1	902	1,006	3	1,009	1,534	24	1,558	3,566	30	3,596
	76	553	86	639	2,809	586	3,495	3,413	784	4,197	4,928	1,298	6,226	11,803	2,754	14,557
	337	9	—	9	2,047	216	2,263	4,291	756	5,047	11,191	4,481	15,672	17,538	5,453	22,991
Total Secondary Schools . .	436	970	94	1,064	6,352	803	7,155	9,141	1,544	10,685	18,142	5,815	23,957	34,605	8,256	42,861

TABLE II.—Continued.

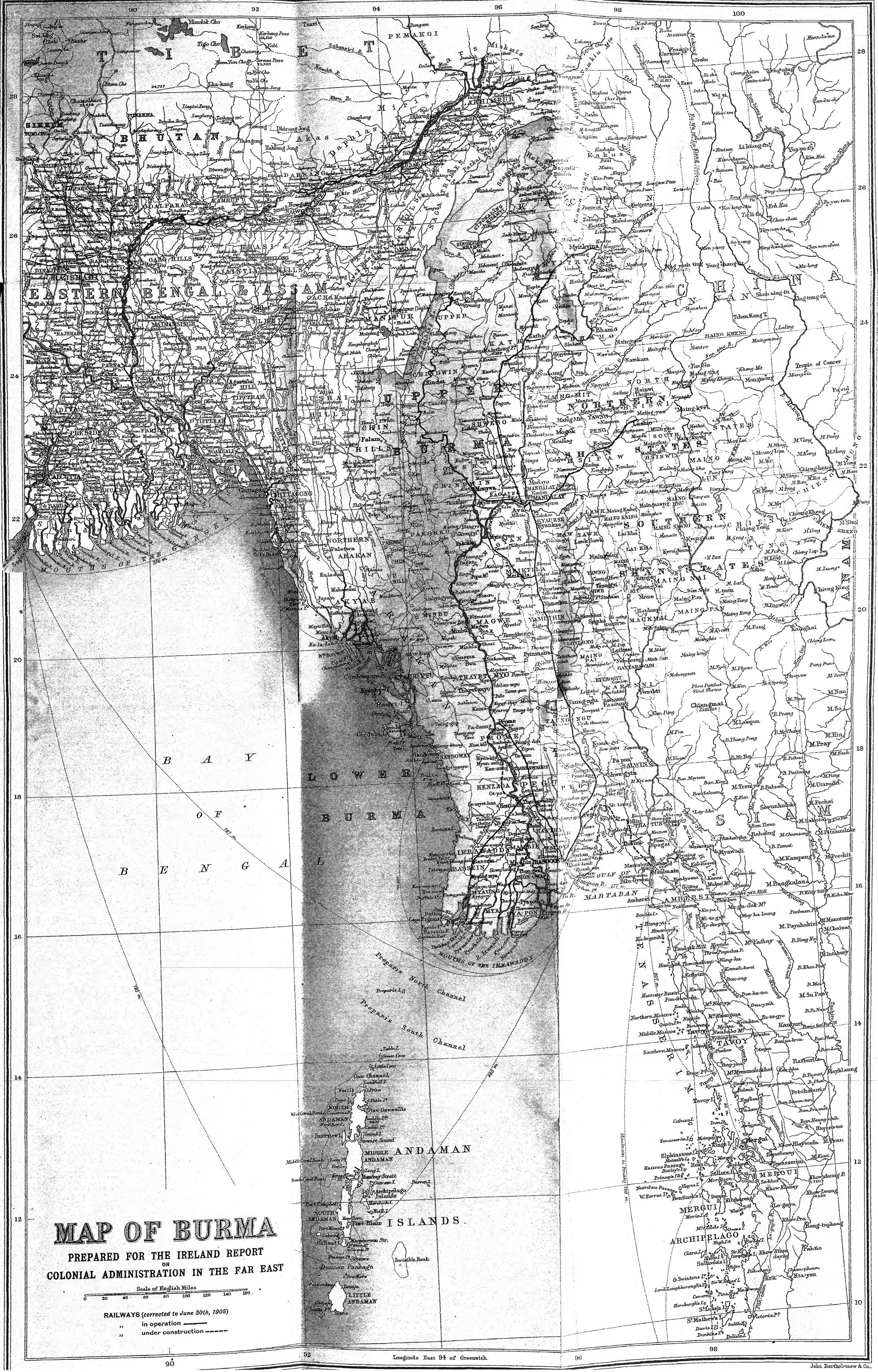
CLASS OF SCHOOLS.	Num- ber of Schools.	HIGH STAGE.			MIDDLE STAGE.			UPPER PRIMARY STAGE.			LOWER PRIMARY STAGE.			TOTAL.		
		Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Primary Schools. All Vernacular: { Government { Boys { Municipal { Aided Total	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	65	—	65	164	—	164	229	—	229
	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	23	—	23	19	—	19	42	—	42
	4,585	—	—	—	—	—	—	11,414	82,00	13,422	102,510	29,157	131,667	113,924	31,165	145,089
	4,590	—	—	—	—	—	—	11,502	2,008	13,510	102,693	29,157	131,850	114,195	31,165	145,360
	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	34	—	34	34
	444	—	—	—	—	—	—	507	659	1,166	4,962	8,967	13,929	5,469	9,626	15,095
	445	—	—	—	—	—	—	507	659	1,166	4,962	9,001	13,963	5,469	9,660	15,129
	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	63	—	65	164	34	198	229	34	263
	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	23	—	23	19	—	19	42	—	42
	5,029	—	—	—	—	—	—	11,921	2,667	14,588	107,472	38,124	145,596	119,393	40,791	160,184
Total Primary Schools	5,035	—	—	—	—	—	—	12,009	2,667	14,676	107,655	38,158	145,813	119,664	40,825	160,489
Total Secondary and Primary Schools.	6	283	6	289	492	—	492	418	1	419	430	12	442	1,623	19	1,642
	6	—	—	—	3	—	3	78	—	78	223	34	257	304	34	338
	16	125	2	127	901	1	902	1,006	3	1,009	1,534	24	1,558	3,566	30	3,596
	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	23	—	23	19	16	49	49	—	49
	76	553	86	639	2,909	586	3,495	3,413	784	4,197	118,663	1,298	6,226	11,803	2,754	14,557
	5,366	9	—	9	2,047	216	2,263	16,212	3,423	19,635	118,663	42,605	161,268	136,931	46,244	183,175
	5,471	970	94	1,064	6,352	803	7,155	21,150	4,211	25,361	125,797	43,973	169,770	154,269	49,081	203,350
GRAND TOTAL, SECONDARY AND PRIMARY SCHOOLS																

III. TABLE SHOWING THE EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN BURMA, 1905.

OBJECTS OF EXPENDITURE.		TOTAL PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS UNDER PUBLIC AND UNDER PRIVATE MANAGEMENT.					
		From Provincial Revenues.	From District Funds.	From Municipal Funds.	From Fees.	From Private Sources.	Total.
		Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
COLLEGIATE EDUCATION. Arts Colleges		39,483	—	—	15,730	13,074	68,287
Secondary Schools.							
For Boys. { High Schools, English		93,668	420	57,583	190,834	29,639	372,144
{ Middle Schools, English		92,321	—	68,728	177,865	46,530	385,444
{ High Schools, Vernacular		28,261	35,173	27,546	—	—	90,980
{ Middle Schools, Vernacular		16,020	—	15,754	—	18,180	89,375
For Girls. { High Schools, English		8,085	823	15,333	23,968	14,269	63,478
{ Middle Schools, Vernacular		4,420	1,342	6,468	—	—	12,230
Total Secondary Schools		242,775	37,758	191,412	432,088	108,618	1,012,651
SCHOOL EDUCATION, GENERAL.							
Primary Schools.							
For Boys, Vernacular		180,335	182,203	55,305	26,863	9,467	454,263
For Girls, Vernacular		25,863	11,918	13,619	9,078	2,608	63,086
Total Primary Schools		206,198	194,121	69,014	35,941	12,075	517,349
Total School Education—General.		448,973	231,879	260,426	468,029	120,693	1,530,000
SCHOOLS for Special Instruction.							
Training Schools for Masters		72,898	—	—	—	4,755	77,653
Training Schools for Mistresses		7,594	—	—	—	200	7,794
Technical and Surveying Schools		14,346	—	—	3,926	—	5,512
Technical and Industrial Schools		1,202	—	—	1,908	—	16,446
Reformatory Schools		18,427	—	—	—	—	18,427
Other Schools		11,637	—	2,410	5,995	4,335	24,377
Total School Education, Special		127,690	—	2,410	11,829	9,482	151,411
BUILDINGS, DIRECTION, INSPECTION, SCHOLARSHIPS, ETC.							
Buildings		178,133	—	35,700	—	35,348	249,181
Furniture and Apparatus		2,633	2,405	2,118	—	3,376	10,582
Direction		53,687	—	—	—	—	53,687
Inspection		207,196	—	1,285	—	—	208,481
Scholarships in Arts Colleges		6,948	—	—	—	40	6,988
Scholarships in Medical Colleges		17,730	—	—	—	—	17,730
Scholarships in Secondary Schools		6,392	—	—	—	—	6,392
Scholarships in Technical Schools		531	—	—	—	522	1,053
Miscellaneous Expenditure		59,027	5,830	10,797	228,897	70,013	374,564
Total Buildings, Direction, etc.		532,327	8,235	49,900	228,897	109,299	928,658
TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC INSTRUCTION		1,148,473	240,114	312,736	724,485	252,548	2,678,356

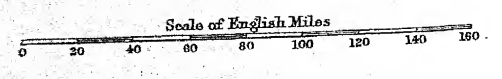
IV. TABLE SHOWING THE CLASSIFICATION OF THE SCHOLARS IN THE SCHOOLS OF BURMA ON MARCH 31,
1905, ACCORDING TO SEX AND RACE OR CREED.

	EUROPEANS AND EURASIANS.		NATIVE CHRISTIANS.		HINDUS.		MUHAMMADANS.		BUDDHISTS.		PARSI.		OTHERS.		TOTAL.		GRAND TOTAL MALES AND FEMALES.
	Males.	Fe- males.	Males.	Fe- males.	Males.	Fe- males.	Males.	Fe- males.	Males.	Fe- males.	Males.	Fe- males.	Males.	Fe- males.	Males.	Fe- males.	
PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.																	
Arts Colleges	17	4	31	3	13	8	7	10	103	—	—	—	—	—	171	7	178
High Schools for Boys	964	8	858	162	197	—	481	2	5,059	141	22	5	16	329	7,587	329	7,916
High Schools for Girls	203	758	6	535	1,028	52	757	2	128	145	—	—	17	987	356	987	1,343
English Middle Schools for Boys	168	56	1,726	190	4	2	8	7	5,517	160	7	1	7	14	9,210	897	10,107
English Middle Schools for Girls	226	416	35	367	225	4	314	82	1,231	370	1	—	11	1,231	4,340	1,231	5,571
Vernacular Middle Schools for Boys	1	—	84	190	295	2	314	82	15,086	3,708	1	—	3	1,163	16,269	4,149	20,418
Vernacular Middle Schools for Girls	—	—	26	503	327	6	52	38	685	613	—	—	—	1,163	779	1,163	1,942
Primary Schools for Boys	44	23	4,976	3,401	1,328	177	3,528	602	104,287	26,869	2	1	30	31,165	114,195	31,165	145,360
Primary Schools for Girls	32	54	519	815	21	36	168	162	4,711	8,592	—	—	1	9,660	5,469	9,660	15,129
Training Schools for Masters	14	—	165	—	5	—	5	—	213	—	—	—	—	—	403	—	403
Training Schools for Mistresses	—	58	—	98	—	—	—	1	—	31	—	—	—	—	—	188	188
Law Schools	1	—	1	—	9	—	1	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	18	—	18
Engineering and Survey Schools	21	—	5	—	19	—	—	—	35	—	1	—	2	—	83	—	83
Technical and Industrial Schools	—	27	11	34	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	11	—	11
Reformatory Schools	—	—	—	—	7	—	7	—	58	—	—	—	—	—	72	—	72
Other Schools	122	130	50	62	17	17	12	6	1,307	98	2	1	13	319	1,523	319	1,842
TOTAL SCHOOLS OF PUBLIC IN- STRUCTION	1,803	1,534	9,253	6,311	2,675	300	5,360	916	137,318	40,548	36	9	105	41	156,550	49,659	206,209
PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS.																	
Elementary Schools for Boys:	—	—	473	365	1	—	29	4	154,590	2,379	—	—	—	—	155,093	2,748	157,841
Teaching a Vernacular	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	441	1,265	—	—	—	—	442	1,265	1,707
Elementary Schools for Girls:	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Teaching a Vernacular	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Elementary Schools for Boys:	—	—	—	—	17	29	3,799	1,077	—	—	—	—	—	—	3,816	1,106	4,922
Teaching the Koran only	—	—	—	—	78	9	21	—	336	—	—	—	—	—	435	9	444
Other Private Schools for Boys	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
TOTAL PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS	—	—	473	365	96	38	3,850	1,081	155,367	3,644	—	—	—	—	159,786	5,128	164,914
GRAND TOTAL OF SCHOLARS IN PUB- LIC AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS	1,803	1,534	9,726	6,676	2,771	338	9,210	1,997	292,685	44,192	36	9	105	41	316,836	54,787	371,123



MAP OF BURMA

PREPARED FOR THE IRELAND REPORT
ON
COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION IN THE FAR EAST



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